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PRAGMATIC AND STYLISTIC ASPECTS OF EXPRESSIONS OF FUTURALITY IN PROFESSIONAL ECONOMIC TEXT AND THEIR DIDACTIC CONSEQUENCES

DISSERTATION

PRAGMALINGVISTICKÉ A STYLISTICKÉ ASPEKTY PROSTŘEDKŮ VYJADŘUJÍCÍCH FUTURITU V ODBORNÉM EKONOMICKÉM TEXTU A JEJICH LINGVODIDAKTICKÉ DŮSLEDKY

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Declaration:

I hereby declare that this dissertation, titled “Pragmatic and stylistic aspects of expressions of futurality in economic texts and their didactic consequences” and the research to which it refers, are the result of my own work and that all used sources are quoted in the enclosed bibliography.

…….……

Abstract

The dissertation surveys the use of expressions of futurality in professional economic texts (the linguistic part). In addition, it investigates didactic aspects of futurality in the process of English as a second language acquisition, focusing on undergraduates in the study programme B 6208 – Economy and Management (the didactic part). The topic was chosen on the basis of the author´s empirical experience and the results of pre-tests in the target group. The research is based on a corpus-based linguistic study. Seven representative monographs written by native speakers were selected as a source of relevant information about the use of futural constructions in a written economic text. All the sources were explored by means of corpus query software and instances of selected futural constructions (*will, shall, be going to, be about to, be on the point of, be (due)* to and the present tense) were excerpted. Functions of the futural constructions were elaborted on the basis of the numerous excerpts and confronted with English for specific (economic) purpose textbooks that are used widely at Czech economic universities. To prove or disaprove their mutual interdependence, the correlation of general language and specific language proficiencies of undergraduates from two universities was measured. Subsequently, the efficiency of implicit and explicit instruction was measured as an added value by means of a paired t-test. The corpus data indicate that certain futural expressions dominate written native economic texts considerably (*will, shall* and the present simple tense) while other expressions (*be going to, be (due) to, be about to*) are underused. Some futural constructions cannot be detected at all (the present progressive tense, *be on the point of*). Authors of textbooks tend to ignore the various functions of futural expressions in a written economic text. They exemplify the use by means of instances neutral with respect to the frequency, formality level and mode (written or spoken). The research reveals no correlation between the undergraduates' general language and specific language proficiencies. Explicit instruction results in a higher added value in specific language proficiency, in terms of futurality, than implicit instruction. The stylistic and pragmatic specificity of the economic discourse and a large number of intralanguage and interlanguage interferences prove that futurality is a demanding phenomenon from the didactic point of view. Undergraduates appear to need explicit information about the use of futural structures in a specific context. It can thus be concluded that grammar instruction is an indispensable component of the pre-graduate language education.

Key words: academic discourse, English for specific and academic purposes, futurality, functions, implicit and explicit instruction, temporality

Anotace

Disertační práce mapuje užití prostředků vyjadřujících futuritu v odborném ekonomickém textu (lingvistická část) a didaktické aspekty futurity v procesu osvojování angličtiny jako druhého jazyka u studentů bakalářského studijního programu B 6208 - Ekonomika a management (didaktická část). Vlastní empirické zkušenosti autora i výsledky pre-testů v cílové skupině studentů ukazují, že vyjádření futurity je závažným didaktickým problémem v obecném i specifickém (ekonomickém) kontextu. Výzkum je realizován nejprve v rovině lingvistické. Jako zdroj relevantních dat o užití futura v ekonomickém kontextu (psaný diskurs) vybírá autor sedm reprezentativních monografií určených pro profesionály v ekonomických profesích. Pomocí softwaru pro zpracování korpusu jsou excerpovány případy vybraných prostředků vyjádření futurity (*will, shall, be going to, be about to, be on the point of, be (due) to*, přítomný čas). Předmětné doklady jsou posléze interpretovány z pohledu funkcí, které v ekonomickém textu plní. Nálezy z korpusové studie autor konfrontuje s učebnicemi a gramatickými příručkami užívanými v kurzech angličtiny pro specifické ekonomické účely. Ve dvou empirických studiích realizovaných se studenty ekonomických oborů na třech českých univerzitních institucích jsou pomocí didaktických testů měřeny úrovně osvojení vybraných futuritních konstrukcí v kontextu obecném a ekonomickém a jejich vzájemná korelace. Didaktický výzkum završuje zkoumání vlivu implicitního a explicitního vyučování na kvalitu osvojení vybraných futuritních konstrukcí v cílové skupině studentů. Výsledky pre-testů studentů v sedmi seminárních skupinách na dvou univerzitních pracovištích jsou srovnány pomocí párového t-testu s výsledky odložených post-testů. Výsledek párového t-testu a položková analýza dat poskytuje informace o efektivnosti obou přístupů v podobě tzv. přidané hodnoty při osvojování daných futuritních konstrukcí. Výsledky korpusové studie prokazují dominantní výskyt některých futuritních forem (*will, shall* a přítomný prostý čas) v odborném ekonomickém textu. Jiné se vyskytují spíše sporadicky ve velice specifických případech (*be going to, be about to, be (due) to*). Ostatní formy zcela absentují (přítomný čas průběhový, *be on the point of*). Ukazuje se, že futuritní formy plní v ekonomickém

textu rozmanité funkce. Ze srovnání vybraných učebnic s předmětnými doklady excerpovanými z korpusu vyplývá, že autoři učebnic nereflektují frekvenci užití dílčích prostředků ani jejich specifické funkce v psaném odborném ekonomickém textu. Autoři volí příkladový materiál pokud možno neutrální z pohledu úrovně formálnosti, modu (psanosti a mluvenosti) a zaměření (kontext obecný nebo specifický). Výzkum korelace mezi úrovněmi obecně-jazykové a specificky-jazykové kompetence neprokazuje jejich závislost. Větší přidanou hodnotu, a tedy i efektivnost, přináší v krátkodobém horizontu explicitní vyučování. Implicitní přístup má zcela zanedbatelný vliv. Stylistická a pragmatická specifika ekonomického diskursu a četné intrajazykové a interjazykové interference činí z futuritních konstrukcí didakticky náročné téma. Potřeba explicitních informací o jejich užití v ekonomickém kontextu naznačuje užitenost výuky gramatiky ve specifickém kontextu v pregraduální jazykové přípravě studentů ekonomických univerzit.

Klíčová slova: akademický diskurs, angličtina pro specifické a akademické účely, implicitní a explicitní vyučování, funkce, futurita, temporalitaf

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INTRODUCTION

The aim of the dissertation is to survey phenomenon of futurality in the context of written professional economic text. The research aims to elaborate futurality as a linguistic concept, occurring in the economic discourse, and as a didactic problem in the subject of English for specific economic purposes. Hence, the dissertation comprises linguistic and didactic components to fulfil the interdisciplinary orientation of the research.

The linguistic component is based on a corpus-based study conducted by the author. Even though there exist a number of relevant accessible corpora (e.g., the British National Corpus), they do not provide enough information for the purpose of the research. Firstly, their selection criteria are not sensitive enough (e.g., the particular subject or discipline to source). Secondly, they do not mostly provide researchers with access to source texts. Private corpora are not subject specific or they focus on other subjects and disciplines.

In addition, the English for Specific Purposes research theory recommends that researchers explore linguistic phenomena in authentic disciplinary texts and use them as a source of relevant didactic material and contextualisation as well as a predictor for potential didactic problems. Our linguistic research aims to explore ways of conveying futurality in its broad sense in the corpus of selected professional economic books.

As relevant academic grammars and studies do not provide a unified account of futurality as a linguistic phenomenon, theoretical concepts of temporality and futurality must first be synthesised. Selected expressions of futurality will then be excerpted using a professional corpus query software. On the basis of the unified account, the excerpts will be better delimited and explicated. It is hypothesised that the distribution as well as functions of futurality differ significantly between the general and the economic context. It is also hypothesised that such differences may result in negative intralanguage transfer, i.e., they predispose economic professionals to overuse certain stereotypes acquired in the general context.

The didactic component of the dissertation aims to reveal the most frequent overgeneralisations and discrepancies that economic undergraduates encounter. It is assumed that students of economics have little or no background knowledge and practice in using futurality in the context of professional economic books. Hence, their pragmatic competence may be underdeveloped in this area. To find out what common knowledge economic undergraduates can rely upon, we will explore widely used English for business

and economic purpose grammar books. We believe that the differences between corpus-based and textbook analysis findings might also help authors of textbooks to incorporate more relevant and appropriate metalinguistic explanations and exemplars in their works.

As one of our aims is to measure the command of the use of futural expression in economic texts, a representative group of students will be tested in the research by means of a didactic test. Since we assume that learners' pragmatic competence is unbalanced between the general and the professional context, paired scores from an economic-context and a general-context language test shall be compared and the presupposed differences shall be analysed.

It can be hypothesised that the unbalanced profile of the pragmatic competence does not result from the lack of exposure to authentic professional economic texts (books), but from an inappropriate implicit-only instruction that economic undergraduates are provided in their English for specific purpose classes. We claim that implicit instruction does not provide enough stimulus for learners to (re)structure their background knowledge in terms of futurality and to reduce the impact of the pragmatic overgeneralisation (negative intralanguage transfer). To confirm the hypothesis, selected groups of economic undergraduates will be exposed to explicit and implicit instruction and their paired pre- and post-test results will be explored and interpreted.

We believe that our research might enrich the theory of English for specific (namely economic) purposes. A number of studies have proved a significant negative interlanguage transfer between various grammar categories in a number of languages, but the results of our research describe specific problems of Czech economic undergraduates with respect to futurality. In addition, little research has been done by theoreticians to investigate intralanguage interferences as well as the effectiveness of implicit and explicit instruction to reduce them.

We sincerely hope that the research might also help economic undergraduates to perceive and convey futurality more accurately and appropriately in their English classes, when studying at foreign economic institutes or working abroad as economic professionals. The extent and coverage should make it possible to provide university teachers of English for economic purposes with a better orientation in the phenomenon of futurality and with a substantial source of reference, exemplars and their interpretations.

THEORETICAL PART

1 ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

1.1 ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES AND ITS DEVELOPMENT

The subject and research methods of the dissertation arise from the theory of English for specific purposes (ESP). As Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 3) declare "ESP is based on designing courses to meet learner's needs". English for specific purposes covers two major areas of language learning and teaching which are: *How people learn?* and *What people learn?* The two questions then delimit ESP course design, its application and the teacher's approach.

From the definition of ESP it becomes apparent that it is a context-based approach. Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 3) assert that a number of research findings have proved that "the language we speak and write varies considerably, and in a number of ways, from one context to another. In English language teaching, this gave rise to the view that there are important differences between, say, the English of commerce and that of engineering. … The idea was simple: if language varies from one situation of use to another, it should be possible to determine the features of specific situations and then make these features the basis of the learners' course. … 'Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need' became the guiding principle of ESP."

English for specific purposes also underwent several developmental stages. The stages varied with respect to language descriptions and schools of thought in linguistics. While the history of language teaching started with classical or traditional grammar description, ESP emerged after this period. Therefore, the influence of that period has never been so strong. What remains preserved in ESP and other disciplines of English language teaching and learning is the classical description of how language operates.

The era of structural linguistics has influenced ESP to a greater extent since the 1930s. The grammar of language was analysed through syntagmatic structures carrying fundamental propositions and notions. In ESP as well as General English, substitution tables were introduced to create structural frameworks so that sentences with different meanings could be generated. ESP course curricula were designed around the structural syllabus. Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 26) claim that "[the structural syllabus] has proved to be a very powerful means of selecting and sequencing language items. In such a syllabus, items are graded so that simpler and more immediately useable structures precede the more

complex ones… For this reason the structural syllabus continues to be widely used in spite of criticism from advocates of functional, notional or use-based descriptions of English."

In the 1950s, the syntagmatic approach towards language was established when Noam Chomsky's Syntactic structures was published. Chomsky proposed that language must be analysed on two different levels: a deep level and a surface level. While the deep level reflects the organisation of thoughts, the surface level describes how the meaning is expressed through the syntax of the language. The syntagmatic approach only dealt with the surface level. Thus, Transformational Generative Grammar was introduced and affected language teaching and learning including ESP. Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 27) claim that it was Chomsky who "re-established the idea that language is rule-governed." In addition, the relation between form and meaning was widened. The most important concept that influenced the theory of ESP was the distinction between performance (on the level of surface structure) and competence (on the level of deep structure). Chomsky's definitions were later broadened to exceed the scope of syntax, but since then, theoreticians have continued to explore what people do with the language (performance) but they also found interest in the competence that enables them to do it. The distinction between competence and performance is of crucial importance in ESP as it placed emphasis on describing the performance in the early stages of its development. Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 28) assert that "We need to make a distinction between the performance repertoire of the target situation and the competence required to cope with it. The competence, providing, as it does, the generative basis for further learning… is the proper concern of ESP." The shift from the form to the function became an important movement with the development of the concept of communicative competence. The existence of language is not autotelic. It exists as people do things with it. Thus the competence is not a set of rules for formulating grammatically correct utterances. It is a knowledge and skill to respect the appropriacy of one's utterances (when, where, with whom and in what manner to speak). The study of language must therefore be broadened to consider:

- non-verbal communication,
- role relationships,
- the topic and
- purpose of communication

The pragmatic turn had significant consequences for ESP.

Such language variation extended ESP theory, which was newly based on register analysis. A new postulate of ESP was formulated: "If language varies according to context, then it should be possible to identify the kind of language associated with a specific

context, such as an area of knowledge (legal English; social English; medical English; business English; business English; scientific English, etc.) or an area of use (technical manuals, academic texts, business meetings, advertisements, doctor-patient communication, etc.)" (Hutchinson et al., 2006, p. 30). This approach enabled ESP to define formal characteristics of various registers, to delimit language items and other phenomena and to design syllabi for different specific areas as a result. Register analysis managed to identify statistically significant language differences among the various registers.

The formal description did not meet the expectations as the frequency of an item does not provide much explanation of its use in the particular context. So the concept of a functional and notional description of language enhanced the ESP theory more. According to Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 31),

- functions are concerned with social behaviour and represent the intention of the speaker or writer, for example, advising, warning, threatening, describing, etc.,
- notions reflect the way in which the human mind thinks, so they are categories into which the mind and therefore the language divides reality, for example, time, frequency, duration, gender, number, location, quantity, quality, etc.

The functional view of language was promoted by the Council of Europe, which attempted to establish equivalence in the syllabi for teaching and learning foreign languages. As the structural syllabus was based on formal structures of different languages, it was replaced by the functional syllabus. The most influential were Threshold Level (Van Ek, 1975), Waystage (Van Ek and Alexander, 1977) and Vantage (Van Ek and Trim, 2000).

The move to the functional approach affected the development of ESP considerably. ESP students no longer learnt only context-unbound grammar structures but started to learn how to use the knowledge they already had. While the structural approach showed only form, the functional approach based ESP learners' knowledge on language in use.

The functional syllabus led to some disorganisation as it lacks any kind of systematic conceptual framework which can help learners organise their knowledge. It should not be considered as a replacement to the older structural syllabus. As Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 32) emphasise, functions cannot be rid of structures as the following equation holds: *structure + context = function.* Thus, there is a complementary relation

between function and structure. The structural and functional approaches must therefore complement each other in a successive manner.

Later, discourse analysis influenced further development of ESP. Functions conveyed by isolated sentences change with the different contexts. The shift in meanings results from two factors:

- sociolinguistic context delimited by the relationship between the participants in the communication and their reasons for communicating,
- discourse meaning delimited by the relative positions of the utterances within the discourse, which means that every utterance gains meaning with respect to what utterances it precedes or follows

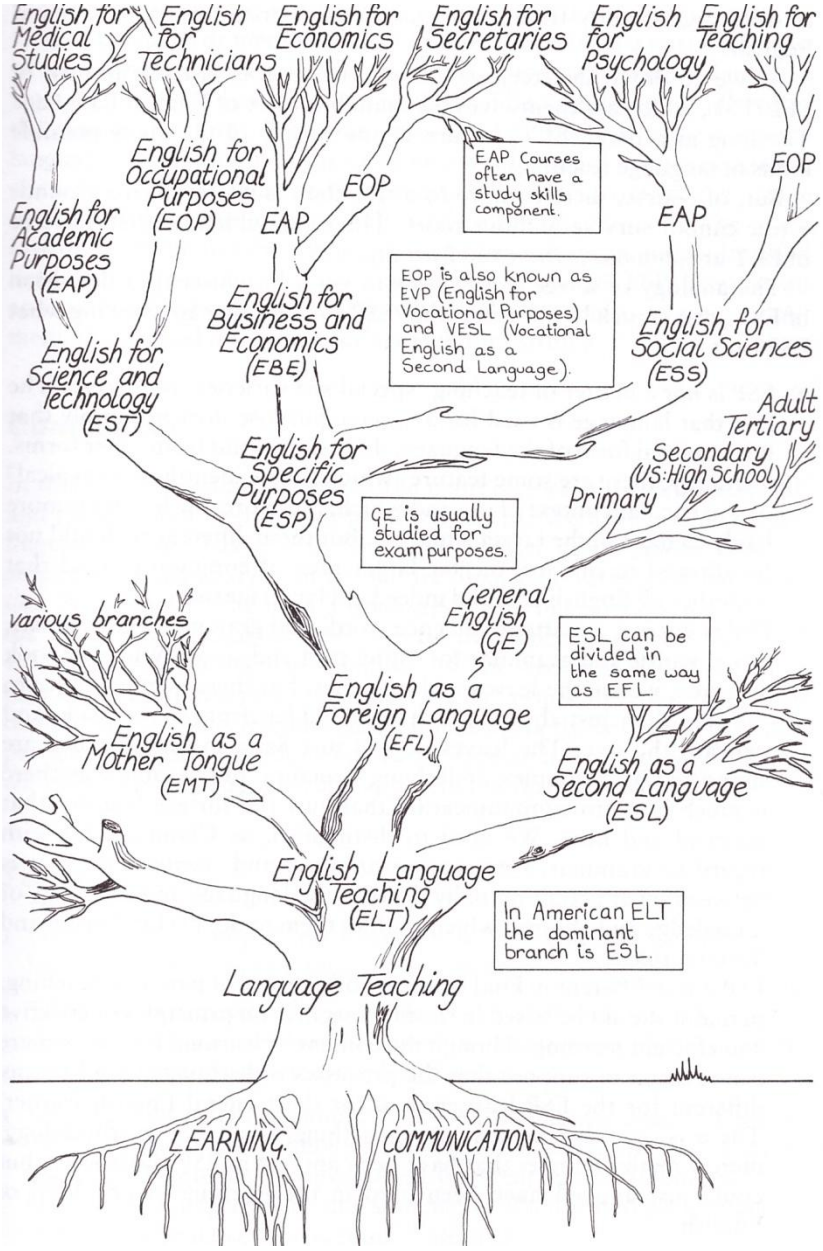
Discourse analysis was to make learners more efficient readers. Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 36) claim that the focus on sociolinguistic context and discourse meaning makes learners "aware of the underlying structure of a text and the way in which language has been organised to create this structure." Discourse analysis interpreted discourse as structural linguistics did on the level of a sentence. Discourse patterns were analysed but did not provide a profound explanation of how they create meaning. The ESP theory also attempts to find out whether developing learners' awareness of patterns in discourse will enable them to use such patterns in real communication. According to Hutchinson et al. (ibid), further research should show what ways of such development are most effective.

1.2 REGISTER ANALYSIS

ESP uses a number of linguistic tools to meet its target. One of the most useful concepts is register analysis. Allen and Widdowson (1974) state the postulating axiom of ESP: "We take the view that the difficulties which the students encounter arise not so much from a defective knowledge of the system of English, but from an unfamiliarity of English use, and that consequently their needs cannot be met by a course which simply provides further practice in the composition of sentences, but only by one which develops a knowledge of how sentences are used in the performance of different communicative acts."

Register analysis as a major research method of ESP does not focus only on sentence grammar. It analyses how sentences are combined in discourse to produce meaning. The primary research interest is to identify patterns in texts and delimit means through which such patterns are realised.

ESP is a diversified discipline divided into English for occupational purposes (EOP) and English for academic purposes (EAP) (see the picture below):



Picture 1: Stratification of ESP

It is not only the existence of need that differentiates ESP from general English. Presumably, it is indisputable that specific courses have their specific needs and targets. Unlike general English, ESP is aware of the needs. Thus, both ESP teachers and ESP learners are aware of what is acceptable and reasonable content in the language course. The ability to specify why learners need English results in ESP subject and its content (e.g., Commerce, Medicine, Science).

According to Hutchinson et al (2006, p. 55) need can be defined as necessities, lacks and wants:

- Necessities are delimited by target situations and communicative activities that are necessary to deal with the situations successfully. In terms of the language to be used, necessities define functions that should by covered in an ESP course to saturate the appropriate needs.[1]
- Lacks show what students already know. Knowing what has been acquired reveals what is necessary to develop to meet the target. Lacks can identify language forms that must be acquired before a particular language target can be reached.
- Wants are subjective wishes and expectations of learners. Learners also have an opinion as to what their needs are.

Language needs constituting ESP thus involve objective necessities and lacks and subjective wants.

Whether students are motivated internally is very important for the success and effectiveness of ESP courses. Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 55) present research results that agriculture and veterinary students, who were less motivated than medical students, were less motivated to work with veterinary and agricultural texts and made little progress in their ESP classes. Weaker motivation apparently results in lower progress as unmotivated students do not process texts profoundly and pay less attention to relevant linguistic phenomena.[2]

1.3 ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES RESEARCH METHODS

ESP employs a number of research methods to analyse the students' needs that it reflects. Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 58) enumerate some of them:

- Questionnaire
- Interview
- Observation
- Data collection, namely gathering and analysing texts
- Informal consultations with sponsors, learners and others

The method to be selected depends on the needs that researchers explore. For instance, needs in terms of linguistic competence will probably be investigated by means

1 Our research aims to identify what is lacking in ESP learners' command of futural expressions in the professional and academic formal written context.

2 As motivation undoubtedly affects attention paid to the object of the motivation, lower motivation results in lower attention. In accordance with the noticing theory, it can be concluded that little attention reduces noticing which is necessary to convert input into intake. Among other things, the progress and efficiency of language education relies on the quality of noticing, i.e., the quality of the intake.

of data collection, namely corpus-based analyses of relevant texts. Only in this way can appropriate target structures be detected, identified and interpreted.

Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 59) assert that needs are delimited by questioning the target situation: "The analysis of target situation needs is in essence a matter of asking questions about the target situation and the attitudes towards that situation of the various participants in the learning process." The analysis of the target situation can be framed by a number of questions:

- Why is the language needed? (for study, work, training, or a combination of these)
- How will the language be used? (medium, channel, types of texts or discourse)
- What will the content areas be? (subjects and level)
- Who will the learner use the language with? (native and non-native speakers, level of knowledge of receivers, relationship of communicants)
- Where will the language be used? (physical setting, human context, linguistic context)
- When will the language be used? (concurrently with the ESP course or subsequently, frequently or seldom)

Hutchinson et al. (2006) emphasise that answers to the questions must be collected from various sources – human, environmental as well as linguistic. Delimiting the target situation will also contribute to the construction of an ESP syllabus. Only when the target situation is defined is it possible to answer the crucial question: "What knowledge and abilities will the learners require in order to be able to perform to the required degree of competence in the target situation?" (p. 60)

As ESP learners are usually future professionals in the specific areas, syllabus and course designers should analyse what the expert communicator in the specific subject needs in order to function effectively in the situation. In terms of the linguistic competence, the language production of professionals needs be researched.[3]

There are various approaches to identify the target situation and compose the curriculum:

- Language-centred approach
- Skills-centred approach
- Learning-centred approach

Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 65) claim that language-approach is the most familiar of the three. In the dissertation, we also adopt the learning-centred approach as our goal is to

3 Our research is based on a corpus-based study of futural expressions to explore the natural and appropriate written production of economics professionals.

identify, describe and interpret particular linguistic items (the constructions of future) with respect to the needs in a particular discipline and the learning process at university.

The analytical and designing process reveals what the ESP learner needs in order to be able to comprehend and produce texts in their subject as well as to communicate the specific content effectively (accurately, appropriately, fluently, coherently, and in a complex way). Unlike the skill- and language-centred approaches, the learning-centred approach is harmonious as it combines the aspects of learning, learning situation, target situation and language equally. The skills-centred and language-centred approaches neglect some of the learning aspects. They do not consider how the particular targets (skills or language) are acquired most effectively.

Appropriate teaching and learning materials are also a crucial aspect of the ESP curriculum. The specificity of an ESP course requires the use of distinctive materials. Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 106) claims that "Materials writing is one of the most characteristic features of ESP in practice. In marked contrast to General English teaching, a large amount of the ESP teachers' time may well be taken up in writing materials."[4]

General English materials are numerous, widespread and easily accessible. In addition, most English teachers are well aware of the General English contexts and discourse. ESP courses are usually provided by institutions involved in the subject area, namely universities. As each ESP course reflects a different target situation, learning needs and specific language discourse, it is of a very limited validity (social, regional as well as time). Teachers and institutions thus have to provide their learners with self-made materials. In addition, the materials are not worth publishing due to the limited number of users and markets.

This is especially true for EAP textbooks as, at universities, most courses are tailored to meet academic needs. There are EOP textbooks available and our research proves that EAP courses often use them. For instance, instead of textbooks of English for economic purposes (a discipline of EAP), university courses use materials marked as English for business purposes (a discipline of EOP). But such learning and teaching materials do not reflect the target situation. As we have shown, they have to cover a wide range of topics and language phenomena that are not specific to a certain academic subject. Subsequently, exemplars are too general, inadequate for the (economic) discourse, medium

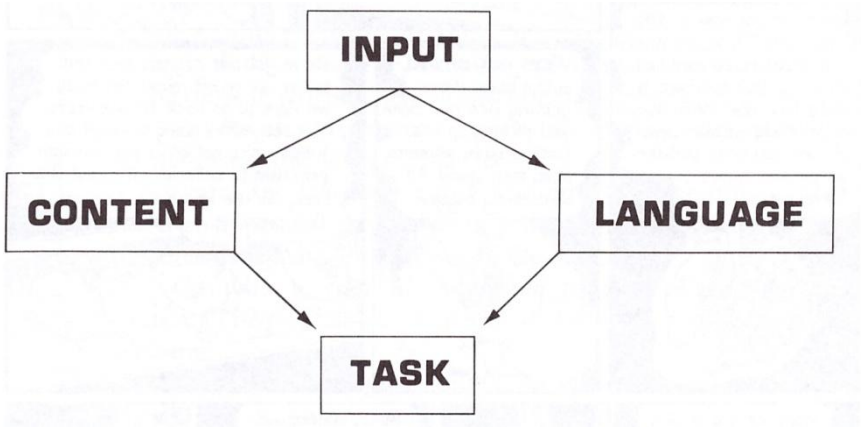
4 In the Analytical part we attempted to compose a teaching material to suit our research purposes adequately.

and formality level. This contradicts Hutchinson's claim that "materials provide models of correct and appropriate language use." (2006, p. 108)

Appropriate ESP materials must consider four essential aspects:

- Input
- Content focus
- Language focus
- Task

The ESP input provides stimulus material for activities, new language items, correct models of language use, and a topic for communication. The context focus includes the non-linguistic phenomena of a meaningful communication, natural for the specific discourse. Language focus provides learners with all the necessary language items to convey the specific content (accurately, appropriately, fluently, coherently and in a complex way). Hutchinson et al (2006, p. 109) states that "it is unfair to give learners communicative tasks and activities for which they do not have enough of the necessary language knowledge." Tasks represent the highest level of the hierarchy as it is language use that is the purpose of language learning. Thus, communicative tasks represent one of the fundamental objectives of ESP. Undoubtedly, specific tasks require the use of specific language.

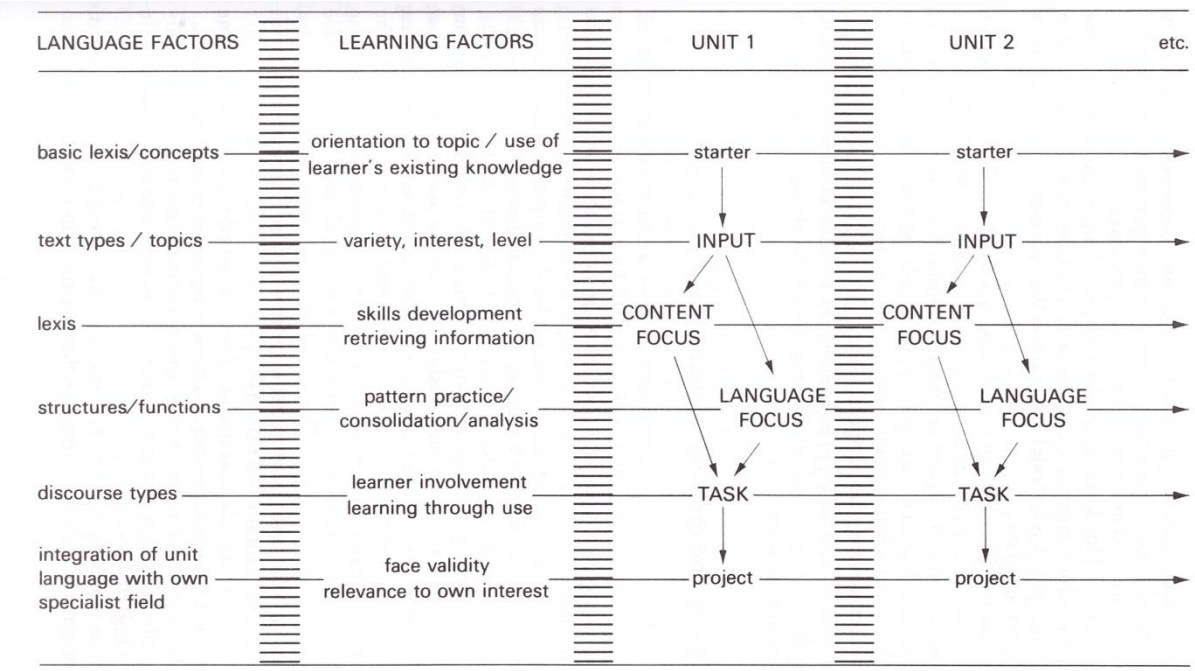


Picture 2: The relation of input and task

ESP also requires explicit analysis of language items. Task is then used as a situation based on problem-solving, in which ESP learners have to use and therefore activate their target language structures. Input becomes a source of language and content; language is approached through an area of content. Structures are selected with respect to the task that learners are to do. It is important that the lesson is coherent throughout the

unit. The input-task model is to combine both language and content to create such coherence and provide support for complex activities.

The input-content-language-task model can be described more profoundly by the following diagram:



Picture 3: The model of input, content, language and task relations

With regard to the model, it is apparent that the choice of input is a crucial aspect of ESP. Hutchinson et al. (2015, p. 121) provide three criteria that should be observed:

- The text (input) should be a naturally occurring piece of communication or a piece that might well have occurred naturally.
- It should be suited to the learners' needs and interests. Thus, adaptation or re-writing at a later-stage is acceptable when necessary.
- It should be capable of generating useful classroom activities.

1.4 MAXIMS OF ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

Besides the selection of input, there are other principles or maxims of ESP that Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 128) purpose:

Maxim One: Second language learning is a developmental process and comprehension precedes learning. Learners of a second language use their existing knowledge to interpret new information. A learner's current knowledge of most of the specific content is thus an

indispensable presupposition for acquiring new specific language. ESP teachers must be aware of what their students already know in terms of the language, content and tasks.

Maxim Two: Language learning is an active process. Knowledge itself is not the only necessary constituent of the learning process. Students must use the knowledge that is to be acquired. There are two types of language learning activity: psycho-motor (movement of speech organs) and language processing (reorganising and restructuring information into a meaningful network of knowledge). Psycho-motor activity is meaningless if no network of language knowledge is created. The intensity of activity is therefore not measured by how much learners have to say or write but how much they have to think.

Maxim Three: Language learning is a decision-making process. Learners as well as teachers are considered as decision-makers within ESP classes. Their decisions are answers to the following questions: What knowledge is new? How does it relate to the existing knowledge? What is the underlying pattern? Is there a rule of appropriacy here? Which information is relevant? Which is not important?

Maxim Four: Language learning is not just a matter of linguistic knowledge. ESP learners are mostly (young) adult learners whose knowledge of their subject specialism can be very deep and profound. Thus, there is a discrepancy between their conceptual capacity and linguistic level. Teaching in ESP classes has to respect both. In addition, conceptual capacity can be used to support the development of linguistic competence through an appropriate input.

Maxim Five: Language learning is not the learner's first experience with language. Most ESP learners have attended General English courses. Their previous language experience should be used effectively to accelerate the progress of ESP acquisition. At the same time, teachers must be aware of interferences that might collide with the learning process.

Maxim Six: Language learning is an emotional experience. ESP teachers should therefore saturate positive emotions. It is possible to do this in a number of ways: using pair or group work, giving students time to think, placing emphasis on the process of getting an answer rather than on the product itself, valuing attitude as much as aptitude and ability and by drawing interest and supplying variety in materials and methodology.

Maxim Seven: Language learning is to a large extent incidental. While thinking about the content to be processed or conveyed, learners also learn the language they have to process or use. To a large extent, learning a language is also an unconscious process.

Thus, tasks (problems) assigned to students need not only be language problems. It is ESP which can easily use the subject domain to provide natural real-life and professional tasks. Such tasks then make learners use language through thinking about the problems and therefore enable them to fix it in the matrix of knowledge.

Maxim Eight: Language learning is not systematic. External arrangement of information in a systematic way does not necessarily lead to effective learning. It is the learner who has to create their internal system. The process of conveying information necessarily need not be systematic even though we learn through systematising our knowledge: *information (systematised or non-systematised) ⇒ process of teaching and learning ⇒ knowledge (systematised).*

The above principles constitute the basis of ESP methodology. For instance, Hutchinson et al. (2006) provide a list of activities suitable for ESP in-class materials on the basis of the principles:

- Gaps create demands for thinking:
  a/ information gaps (in a pair work when one learner has some knowledge and the other does not have the same knowledge, they have to share it)
  b/ media gaps (information must be transferred to another medium)
  c/ memory gaps (learners receive information at one stage of a lesson and have to reconstruct it at another stage of the lesson)
  d/ jigsaw gap (parts need to be put together to create a complete unit)
  e/ opinion gaps (opinions are required based on learners' different experience)
  f/ certainty gaps (learners can express and discuss their different certainties of problems and tasks)
- Variety avoids repetition that can lead to inattention. Only attention can guarantee the necessary noticing. Variety can be achieved by a number of ways:
  a/ variety of medium (text, pictures, speech)
  b/ variety of classroom organisation (individual, pair, group, class)
  c/ variety of learning role (presenter, evaluator, receiver, thinker, negotiator)
  d/ variety of exercises, activities or tasks
  e/ variety of skill (reading, listening, writing, speaking)
  f/ variety of topics
  g/ variety of focus (accuracy versus fluency; discourse, structure, and pronunciation)
- Prediction is a result of learners' anticipating a pattern or a system on the basis of their existing knowledge. Making learners predict forms and meanings has a number of benefits for them:
  a/ It builds their confidence and makes them realise what they already know.
  b/ It enables the teacher to discover possible discrepancies and gaps in their learners' knowledge.
  c/ It activates the learner's existing knowledge networks and prepares them to incorporate new knowledge.
  d/ It motivates learners and provides them with enough self-esteem.
- Enjoyment helps learners pay attention and be involved in the classroom activity. Only attention and involvement can saturate noticing which is necessary to convert input into intake.

- An integrated methodology (employing a range of skills and activities) makes it possible to maintain learners' interest and achieve a high degree of reinforcement.
- Coherence makes a lesson sensible and purposeful. Each lesson should lead to a clear purpose that unifies all the topics and related activities employed. Incoherent lessons that miss any particular goal are purposeless and therefore useless. Incoherence results in a lack of motivation, attention and activity from learners.
- Preparation should mainly focus on creating a context of knowledge around the materials. Only the appropriate context can activate learners' knowledge networks and prepare their minds to adopt new information, restructure it and learn it.
- Involvement integrates both cognitive and emotional activation. Involvement can be triggered indirectly by prediction or variety but also directly by means of asking questions. Learning a language is not based on transmitting comprehensive knowledge. Language is a means of exchanging information. Asking questions is the simplest and most straightforward way of doing so.
- Creativity is a characteristic of a language lesson. Exchanging information does not require only correct responses. Language teaching thus considers answers different with respect to the content. Thus, ideal activities should make such a tolerance possible.
- Classroom atmosphere is one of the essential and necessary conditions for effective learning. Thus, a cooperative social climate should be cultivated in the language classroom. It is particularly important in ESP classes where there are more factors that can interfere with the cooperative atmosphere, such as a teacher who is unsure of the subject area or a learner who does not see any benefits in studying a foreign language.

The outline of methodology and activities adequate for ESP classes shows that ESP methodology does not differ from General English methodology to a great extent. What differs predominantly is the specific input which delimits the content and language that teachers have to deal with in their ESP classrooms. The principles of triggering the learning process are similar, but they reflect the different content and language reality, which General English teachers need not be aware of.

Evaluation is of greatest concern in ESP. Hutchinson et al. (2006) states that "assessment takes on a greater importance in ESP, because ESP is concerned with the ability to perform particular communicative tasks. The facility to assess proficiency is, therefore, central to the whole concept of ESP." Still, the theory of testing and assessment in ESP is a neglected area as most attention is paid to the specification of learning objectives. Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 146) recognise three main types of assessment:

- placement tests which measure the current level of students' language command,
- achievement tests which assess students' progress with respect to the course syllabus, and
- proficiency tests which assess to what extent students are able to cope with the demands of target situations.

All three types of tests can be used as diagnostic tests to find out students' weaknesses and identify their needs. Most tests meet the three functions mentioned above even though they have different names.[5]

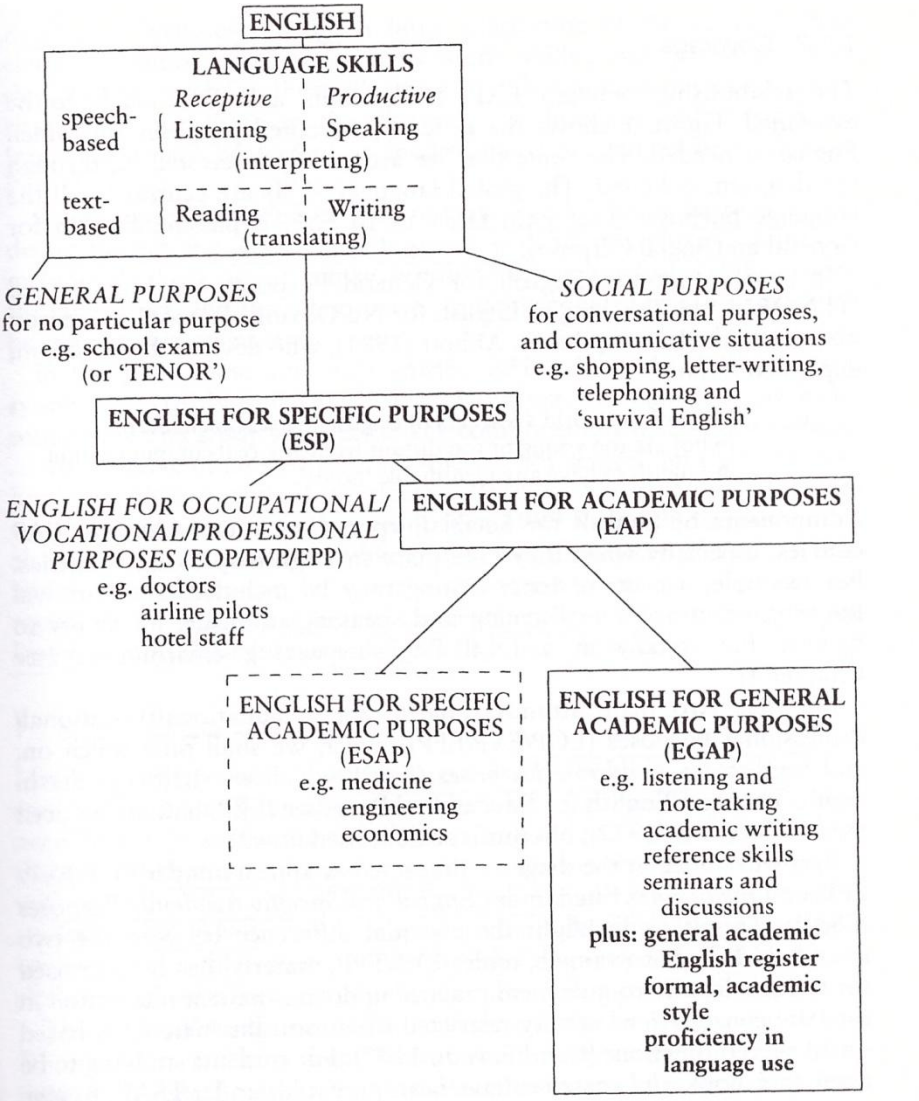
In ESP assessment and evaluation, it is necessary to balance the content area knowledge and the language area knowledge. In ESP, it is the specific language that is to be assessed. Hence, content knowledge (specialist subject knowledge) should not interfere with language knowledge. If the content is above the students' level, the ESP language test will not be valid. At the same time, the test content cannot cover General English. It is therefore necessary to include specific content that students are well aware of. So, Hutchinson et al. (2006, p. 151) ask "How specific is specific?", but provides no answer for the question. Obviously, teachers should study students' specialist subject curriculum to find out what professional concepts students have learnt so that they can choose appropriate input and testing materials.[6]

1.5 ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES

The fundamental definition of English for Specific Purposes is concerned with "communicative skills in English which are required for study purposes in formal education systems." (Jordan, 1997, p.1). The setting of such an educational system can be English-speaking or non-native (where English is a subject of education or a second language). As Jordan claims, students may need EAP for higher education studies, e.g., for reading academic texts. Last but not least, students may need to study abroad to receive education in the target language.

5 In our research, we will assess economics students' command in the area of English futural constructions (proficiency test). General language proficiency and specific language proficiency will then be compared in terms of futural expressions. The effect of implicit and explicit teaching will then be measured by a pre-test (placement test) and a post-test (achievement test). The added value between the placement and achievement will then be compared.

6 In our research, a number of syllabi of the study programme Economics and Management had been surveyed before the research teaching materials were designed. The content level was then adjusted so that the undergraduates were well acquainted with the content area and all the economics concepts involved in the research.



Picture 4: The relation of English for General and English for Specific Academic Purposes

In accordance with Hutchinson et al., Jordan also distinguishes two main branches of English for Specific Purposes. These are English for Occupational (professional, vocational) Purposes (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) (Jordan, 1997, p. 4). Economists, financial analysts or accountants apply the language for their occupational purposes (EOP), but it is primarily the language of economics that EAP is concerned with.

There have been a number of disputations whether EAP is constituted by a common academic core if it is more subject-specific. Jordan (1997, p. 4) thus distinguishes English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (EGSP) to emphasise that both the constituents are significant in EAP. Jordan also emphasises that EAP must also develop study skills for the particular academic discipline together with language proficiency, i.e., language adequacy and the academic code.

Jordan (1997, p. 37) proposes the following research methods that can enrich the research base of EAP:

- analysing the language used in different modes and registers, noting the frequency of occurrence of items and using this as a basis for investigation,
- analysing the situations in which students experience difficulty, and testing some of the features and skills employed in situations, and
- investigating particular groups of learners, perhaps from a particular language background or studying a particular subject.[7]

1.5.1 Remarkable research findings in EAP

Jordan (1997, p. 44) refers to extensive research conducted at Cambridge University investigating the language difficulties of overseas (non-native) students. Their written work received a score of 23% and ranked the second most difficult skill (academic writing). Jordan (1981) attended classes of academic writing at a university in the UK. Students were asked to comment on their own writing problems. While style scored 53 %, grammar accounted for 38 %. When a similar questionnaire was assigned to academic staff who instructed the students (i.e., their view was supposed to be more reliable as they knew the real mistakes of the students), style scored 92% and grammar 77%.

Considering style, lecturers emphasised the deficiency in the appropriate level of formality (12%). In grammar areas, tense formation and use were found (26%) to be the most difficult.

Jordan (1997, p. 48) claims that learners' difficulties can persevere even after extensive L2 instruction where no explicit language instruction is given: "... subject tutors are often linguistically unaware, and cannot always distinguish a poorly conceived idea from an idea that is expressed through inadequate English. In other words, subject tutors may assume that something has been poorly understood when, in fact, it has been understood but badly expressed."

In addition, when research was conducted on the role of writing in graduate engineering programmes at six engineering faculties in American universities with a high proportion of non-native students (Jordan, 1997, p. 49), it became apparent that advisers and supervisors (in humanities, social sciences, science and technology) helped their students with their master's theses considerably. The academic staff estimated that 25% of

7 Our research aims to provide relevant answers to all three questions.

the writing was done by the staff themselves. Undergraduates seem not to be ready to cope with the production of academic texts even after extensive instruction.

The position of grammar within EAP courses can be demonstrated by a survey presented by Jordan (1997, p. 73). Most EAP courses covered by the research contained both EAP and non-EAP components. For instance, academic writing occurred in 100 per cent of the courses. Grammar was considered as a non-EAP component and was covered by 47 % of the courses. Thus, it seems that the grammar component is significant for syllabus makers. Jordan (1997, p. 73) claims: "The proportion of time spent on the various components presumably reflects the importance of that component to the students and their future needs."

1.5.2 Discourse, register and genre

Jordan emphasises that course content should always reflect the specific needs of disciplines. A homogeneous group of economists should elaborate economic texts. Regarding grammar, it is usually incorporated in academic writing (Jordan, 1997, p. 75).

As we have said above, the frequency matter must be taken into consideration when designing an EAP syllabus. Jordan (ibid) states that this approach was introduced in EAP theory together with register analysis in the 1960s. He claims that EAP (and especially ESAP) needs statistical data to be able to reflect the language specificities of various disciplines. Frequency (corpus-based) studies can yield data in order to provide grammar registers and lexicons of subjects.

Register analysis focused mainly on word and sentence level, but lexical and grammatical structures, their use and meaning, need to be interpreted within a wider scope of speech and a text. In the 1970s, discourse analysis introduced the analyses of conversations, paragraphs and longer texts. Communicative contexts matter and affect language use. Jordan claims that it is this approach that analyses, for instance, the choice of verb tenses and other grammatical features and the ways grammar affects the structure of the discourse and vice versa. Any interpretation of grammar and lexis can thus be extended to analyse and interpret the relationships between utterances (e.g., aspects of cohesion, discourse markers and cohesive devices).

Still, the analysis of grammatical and lexical features can be extended through genre analysis. Jordan (1997, p. 230) gives the following definition: "A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognised by the expert members of the parent discourse

community, and thereby constitute the rationale of the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains the choice of content and style. In addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience." The authors recognise various genres: research articles, papers, abstracts, theses, dissertations and textbooks. The definition of genre also differs to a great extent. Swales (1990) differentiates three constitutes of a genre: discourse community, genre, and language-learning task; the discourse community is essential. It is delimited by six criteria: common goals, participatory mechanisms, information exchange, community specific genres, a highly specialised terminology, and a high general level of expertise.

The structure of scientific texts (namely dissertations and articles) can be decomposed into moves. While Swales (1990) distinguished three essential moves, Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988) extended Swales' approach and proposed a pedagogical classification of moves:

1. Background information
2. Statement of result
3. (Un)expected outcome
4. Reference to previous research (comparison)
5. Explanation of unsatisfactory results
6. Exemplification
7. Deduction
8. Hypothesis
9. Reference to previous research (support)
10. Recommendation
11. Justification[8]

Lexical and grammatical means differ within the moves to meet their purposes.

Jordan (1997, p. 233) concludes that EAP should comprise such materials and tasks that can increase learners' comprehension and production. Texts should be authentic and disciplinary appropriate. It is a teacher's role to examine and identify the extent to which the learner is able to utilise structures to communicate their scientific thinking. This ability also comprises orientation within genres and semantic relationships between structural elements in texts. Thus, Jordan places emphasis on the ability of learners to communicate textual meaning[9]. He cites Paltridge (1995) who provides the following classification of semantic relations crucial for EAP curriculum:

- associative relations (e.g., statement amplification),

8 It will be discussed later that there exist particular moves which are coherent in terms of temporality. Such moves use various temporal devices to contribute to temporal cohesion.
9 As defined in the Analytical part (see Chapter 7).

- logico-deductive relations (e.g., reason-result), and
- tempero-contigual relations (e.g., chronological sequence).[10]

Johns (1988) compared genres in economics and asserts that the examination of genres within one discipline is justified: "We are still having difficulty identifying the skills which are actually transferable to a variety of academic contexts... though some generalisations can be made about the conventions and skills in academia, the differences among them may be greater than the similarities; for discipline, audience, and context significantly influence the language required."

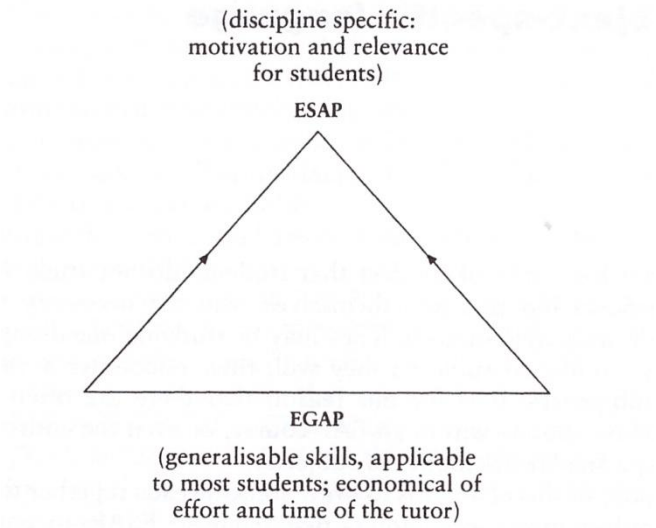
Jordan claims that content or subject matter which ESP students have to study is becoming significant in language pedagogy research. "... the actual subjects that students study (economics, etc.) are being analysed more, from the point of view of the language used, its structure, particular genres, and associated academic conventions." (Jordan, 1997, p. 238) There are weaknesses in this approach due to the low generalisability. On the other hand, the analysis of particular disciplines provides accurate models and is of greater use for students.

1.5.3 Subject-specific language

Even in classes of English for academic purposes it is necessary to reflect on students subject/field specialisation. They need to be equipped with tools that enable them to study specific academic subjects. General English courses can hardly cover the whole range of disciplines. Thus, they will always be of limited use for all students. Johns (1988) states that "... the differences between the skills and conventions needed in academia may be greater than the similarities; for discipline, audience and context significantly influence the language required. Studies must therefore readjust somewhat to each academic discipline they encounter."

The borderline between the various disciplines is not so clear-cut. On the lexical level, technical and specialist vocabulary varies between disciplines. On the grammatical level, sciences and technical disciplines differ in the proportion of tenses, passive form, impersonal construction or nominal compounds (Jordan, 1997, 249).

10 Tempero-congitual relations are extremely important in social sciences (Howe, 1993) as temporal relations cause particular difficulty to EAP/EOP students even at university level. Professionals must be able to switch tenses in texts many times and they must reflect the subject–specific temporal relations.



Picture 5: Differences between EGAP and ESAP

Another aspect of the language for general academic purpose courses is motivational. Students can feel neglected as they prefer to devote time to studying texts and topics related to their particular discipline. According to Jordan (1997, p. 252), research shows that "the more content-specific the course, the more students will find it useful and be motivated". Unlike general academic courses, content-specific courses can comprise genre analysis and other effective means of instruction. Thus, if EAP teachers ignore the specialist subject, they build barriers to teaching ESAP. In addition, courses for students of the same discipline/subject are more appropriate as relevant texts and topics can be used. Jordan (1997, p. 256) warns about the quality of materials used in ESAP classes. Teachers should be partially educated in the discipline to assess the authenticity and didactic value of the materials. Lexis and grammar can never be separated from the concepts and discourse of any discipline: "Care needs to be taken over the choice of book, not only for the appropriacy and level of subject content, but also for the level of language being practised." (Jordan, 1997, p. 256) Jordan (1997) thus summarises what ESAP materials should always include[11]:

- authentic text,
- comprehension checks/questions,
- grammar practice,
- vocabulary study,
- summarising,
- writing tasks,

11 We observe this recommendation in our research (see Chapter 10, Appendix 7 and Appendix 8).

- pair/group work discussions,
- note-taking,
- glossary of specialist terms, and
- others.

Particular attention must be paid to functions and notions that are common to most academic disciplines. The functions of defining, classifying, commenting on data, cause and effect can be found in most subject-specific texts. They delimit the structures that learners need to master. For instance, assumptions and hypotheses are associated with futurality constructions and conditionals, but lexical and grammatical structures will need to be adapted according to the style, conventions and organisation of the written mode of the subject (Jordan, 1997, 256).

According to Hyland (ibid), EAP does not simply aim to prepare learners for study in English. It aims to develop "new kinds of literacy which will equip students to participate in new academic and cultural contexts" (Hyland, 2006, p. 8).

Specificity is seen as a key issue of EAP. Hyland also differentiates two concepts: English for general academic purposes (EGAP) and English for specific academic purposes (ESAP). The EGAP approach isolates skills, forms and study activities thought to be common to all disciplines. ESAP emphasises differences among disciplines. Hyland (2006, p. 9) claims that "the differences among these skills and conventions across distinct disciplines may be greater than the similarities... It forces us to ask the question whether there are skills and features of language that are transferable across different disciplines or whether we should focus on the texts, skills and forms needed by learners in distinct disciplines." The constitution of ESP as a new discipline was started by Halliday's concept centred on the language appropriate to particular disciplines and occupations. Nowadays, such a universal standpoint has become more complex due to greater interdisciplinarity. Competences related to particular fields are prioritised.

1.5.4 Reasons for specific EAP

Hyland (2006, p. 11) summarises the following reasons for specific EAP:

- Subject specialists have neither the expertise nor the desire to teach and develop their students' disciplinary literacy. In addition, specialists need not have a clear understanding of the role that language plays in their disciplines. Their role is to teach the discipline, and the disciplinary curriculum does not allow one to address language issues.

- Students do not learn according to an externally imposed sequence. They tend to acquire features if they need them to communicate a specific meaning. Thus, there is no need to ignore specific language features and prioritise general academic issues.
- Professionals need to be aware of the language specifics of their disciplines: "EAP professional are concerned not simply with teaching isolated words, structures, lexical phrases and so on, but with exploring the uses of language that carry clear disciplinary values as a result of their frequency and importance to the communities that employ them. An awareness of such associations can be developed only through familiarity with the actual communicative practices of particular disciplines." (Hyland, 2006, p.12)
- It is doubted whether there exists a wide "common core" of language items. The concept of general academic core focuses on rather formal system and ignores the fact that "any form has many possible meanings depending on its context of use". (Hyland, 2006, p.12) Commonness is therefore based on grammatical formality. When meaning and use (functions) are considered, the generality becomes problematic. "By incorporating meaning into the common core we are led to the notion of specific varieties of academic discourse, and to the consequence that learning should take place within these varieties." (Hyland, 2006, p.12)
- The participation of students in subject-specific activities rarely depends on their control of a "common core".

Hyland (2006) thus concludes that the discipline, audience and context significantly influence the language required. Some generalisations can be made about the use of language and skills within academia, but students will always need to readjust their general academic competences to each academic discipline they encounter.

1.5.4.1 Academic registers and discipline specificity

Even though EAP courses tend to become specialised and EAP is being replaced by ESAP, it is legitimate to define a general academic discourse (GAD). The unifying feature of the general discourse is the comparatively high degree of formality which manifests in various linguistic levels (grammatical, lexical as well as discourse and pragmatic).

- GAD is tightly packed with information and, therefore, prioritises content words in relation to grammar words.[12]
- Academic information is presented as a complex phenomenon in nominal rather than verbal phrases. Scientists tend to preserve relationships between entities.

12 Halliday (1989, p. 69) provides an example to demonstrate the proportion of content and grammar words. His example also shows that the use of futural constructions can be limited by the different proportion:

/a/ Investment **in a** rail facility implies **a** long-term commitment. (three grammar words)
/b/ **If you** invest **in a** rail facility **this** implies **that you are going to be** committed **for a** long term. (thirteen grammar words)

Halliday (ibid) considers the *be going to* structure as a grammatical means of conveying future. In addition, it is used as an example of a less formal context.

- Scientists convey their theories, analyses and research results in an impersonal way. Thus, new information can be delayed through impersonal structures and the use of passive (e.g., *It is expected, It is assumed* or *It is thought*).

Hyland (ibid) also emphasises that the research of specificity is significant in applied linguistics: "Equally important, the idea of specificity has encouraged EAP to adopt a strong research orientation which highlights the importance of communicative practices in particular contexts." (Hyland, 2006, pp. 14 - 15)

Similarly, Swales (1990) claims that GAD is a central concept but EAP is necessarily genre- and subject-based. L2 learners should be involved in the linguistic analysis of the specificity, contextual relevance, and community-relevant classroom activities. This means that appropriate EAP instruction will not focus on de-contextualised forms.

The language specificity reflects different discourses, different topics, diverse methodologies and ways of seeing the world. Hyland requires that learners of a discipline should also use "language in disciplinary approved ways." (2006, p. 38) Otherwise, they cannot communicate effectively in the specific community and become members of the community. E(S)AP teachers have to facilitate the particular purposes in the particular settings. Unlike general, academic discourse is largely mediated through written language. Thus, disciplinary writing must be a core element of an E(S)AP syllabus. Writing literacy of academic knowledge is a gate-keeping competence. Professionals must be able to transfer their research findings from laboratories into their research articles, papers and monographs. The language used to meet this target is essential for the success of academics. Hyland asserts that "because it [language] helps students to gain access to the discourses which create agreement, EAP has a central role in higher education." (2006, p. 40)

1.5.4.2 Discourse communities

Both authors and recipients are members of the academic community. As mentioned above, such a community has texts and (discourse) practices in common. Texts are aimed at community members both by writing and reading. One of the aims of specific L2 learners is to become insiders of their discourse community (Hyland, 2006, p. 41). They therefore have to develop a greater sensitivity to the ways they use the specific language to project a shared context of the community.

The discourse community delimits the key aspects of context which are:

- situational contexts (interpretation of present time and existence),
- background knowledge context (knowledge about the world and aspects of life), and
- co-text (knowledge of what has been said).

Such common contextual conventions place restrictions on the way the community conveys meaning. The restrictions then define competences necessary for community outsiders to become insiders*: DISCOURSE COMMUNITY* $\Rightarrow$ *CONTEXTS* $\Rightarrow$ *RESTRICTIONS* $\Rightarrow$ *COMPETENCES.*

Discourse competences also enable specific L2 learners to gain control of the genres and communicative practices adequate for achieving target purposes. Knowledge of such textual features allows insiders to participate in a discourse community's communicative events.

1.5.5 Conceptions of genre

Texts can be classified with respect to a number of criteria. The classifications thus differ according to the theory they rest on. Still, all the classifications respect the stability or changes of the language used to create the particular text classes. The specific language, by means of which context is linked with social purposes, then constitutes genres (Hyland, 2006, p. 46).

Halliday (1994) proposes to classify genres with respect to linguistic criteria. Macro-genres are divided into elemental genres. Each elemental genre consists of series of stages that have their specific purposes. For instance, a research article can include elemental genres such as an exposition, a discussion and a rebuttal. The elemental genres require different linguistic features to be involved according to their purposes: "A procedure, for instance, consists of a series of steps which shows how to achieve a goal and may be based on simple imperative clauses using familiar action verbs and everyday objects. Explanations, on the other hand, are more demanding because they typically require students to use sequential, causal and conditional conjunctions." (Hyland, 2006, p. 48)

Swales (1990) opposes that a communicative purpose cannot cover all cases. He proposes the following general frames that delimit a specific genre:

- frame for actions (principles for achieving purposes using language can be identified),
- frame of language standards (the language used is conventionalised),
- frame of species (genres develop analogously in changes of biological species),
- frame of prototypes (instances of a genre are similar to exemplars),
- institutional framework (genres are related to institutions and are subject to their processes and values), and
- frame of speech acts (every genre is intended to perform conventional actions).

EAP considers a genre a communicative event. Such events are initiated and realised by specific discourse communities. EAP thus explores genres in terms of three dimensions:

- purpose,
- audience, and
- context.

All the three dimensions are delimited by the specificity of the particular academic disciplines. With respect to the three dimensions, the following genres can be identified:

Written genres		*Spoken genres*	
Research articles	Book reviews	Lectures	Student presentations
Conference abstracts	Ph.D. dissertations	Seminars	Office hour sessions
Grant proposals	Textbooks	Tutorial sessions	Practicum feedback
Undergraduate essays	Reprint requests	Peer feedback	Dissertation defences
Submission letters	Editor response letters	Colloquia	Admission interviews

Picture 6: Written and spoken genres

Hyland emphasises the language domains that can help constitute genres as follows: "Some genre analysis operationalises these ideas about genre by examining representative text samples to identify salient text features, such as recurring tenses, cohesion, modality, etc., and the ways those texts are structured as a sequence of rhetorical units or moves. Each move is a distinct communicative act designed to achieve a particular communicative function and can be subdivided into several 'steps'." (Hyland, 2006, p. 50) Both the constituents are optional and can occur repeatedly in various arrangements.

Coffin et al. (2003, p. 50) claims that certain genres are cardinal to specific disciplines. Different disciplines constitute genres with respect to different kinds of argument and tasks preferred by the particular discipline. For instance, social sciences

(including economics) prioritise the genres of reports and case studies.[13] Authors also use different linguistic features to persuade their readers. Hyland (2006, p. 52) emphasises the different use of first-person pronouns. Experts in engineering reduce the human agency by omitting the pronouns whereas writers in social sciences use them for interactional purposes. The range of language features and options available is thus restricted by the conventions of a particular discipline.

Genres of various disciplines are not isolated, but can be found in clusters as they have similar purposes and users (authors and readers). As disciplines prefer different genres, they hierarchise texts and create constellations of their specific academic discourse: "... together they represent the full array of texts a particular group must deal with in a context. For teachers, these sets and sequences are not only a useful way of contextualising what is to be learnt by basing instruction on how genres are sequenced and used in real-world events, they also help to integrate reading, speaking and writing activities in the classroom." (Hyland, 2006, p. 55)

To explore the language specifics of a genre, it is recommended that theoreticians conduct corpus-based studies. Hyland (2006, p. 58) promotes concordancers (computer programs analysing texts), which can reveal and refute teachers' intuitive ideas of the language phenomena. The main purpose of such a corpus-based analysis is not to confirm what is or is not correct, possible or impossible, but to show and describe what is frequent or infrequent. Grammaticality can thus be replaced by the concept of typicality, naturality or appropriacy.[14]

Corpus analysis assumes that language phenomena that occur in a text frequently and regularly are supposed to be significant. "This allows us to predict the ways that other representative examples of the genre will be organised and the features it is likely to contain." (Hyland, 2006, p. 59) The frequency of grammatical patterns and others can characterise the domain investigated as particular items have different frequencies and meanings in different disciplines and their genres. Such analyses can therefore enable the exploration of features outside the common (general and academic) core and describe contextual features that can be crucial to language choices.

A number of such research papers (Granger, 1998 and Hinkel, 2002 in Hyland, 2006) have proved that L2 students lack in appropriate lexical variability in academic

13 It has been proved by our corpus-based study that the use of expressions of futurality can differ in various text passages and genres such as in case studies (see Chapter 7).

14 In the research, our hypotheses were derived from the findings of a corpus-based study. The program tlCorpus 8.1.0.1087 was used to elaborate the corpus of economic texts.

essays. In addition, their essays contain stylistic features typical of informal and spoken discourse. If genres and texts are explored through corpus analysis, appropriate (not only grammatical) features can be employed in didactic materials so that ESAP students can make choices in accordance with expert practice and disciplinary expectations and requirements. Hyland (2006, p. 63) emphasises the following valuable information that can be excerpted from a corpus and didacticised:

- patterns of various forms,
- differences between forms that students often confuse,
- the most appropriate forms to use,
- connotative meanings that forms acquire,
- patterning in particular disciplines,
- specific meanings forms take on in particular disciplines, and
- how forms change their meanings with respect to the surrounding text.[15]

Hyland (2006, p. 64) underlines that computer analysis of text corpora is an invaluable tool for EAP. It can make teachers' explanations and their learners' options more subject/domain/field-specific, and, subsequently, more precise, accurate, natural and appropriate. EAP learners thus develop their pragmatic and functional competences.

Besides corpus-based studies, the core disciplinary features should be analysed by means of needs analysis. Two investigations are advisable to be conducted and compared:

- Present situation analysis explores L2 learners' current proficiencies (general, specific or with respect to a particular feature).
- Target situation analysis explores L2 learners' target skills and knowledge, usually on the basis of their future (specific) roles. In the target situation analysis, linguistic context, content area, genres and their typical features are surveyed.[16]

It is recommended that such an analysis should be accompanied by a thorough evaluation of the effectiveness of an applied approach (Hyland, 2006, p. 74).[17] Needs data can be collected by a number of research strategies:

- questionnaires,
- analyses of authentic spoken and written texts,
- structured interviews,
- observations,
- informal consultations with faculty, learners and EAP teachers, and
- assessment results.

Jordan (1997) emphasises self-assessment, class progress tests and the exploration of previous research. Hyland (2006, p. 78) claims that much research is irrelevant as it

15 It is the aim of our research to identify the most relevant expressions of futurality in professional economic texts (their distribution, meanings and functions).
16 Both the dimensions are explored in our research (see Chapter 7 and Chapter 9).
17 The effectiveness of implicit and explicit instructions is researched in the dissertation (see Chapter 10).

studies preconceived classifications of texts which must be differentiated with respect to various disciplines. The specificities are ignored, but a valid analysis requires researching authentic disciplinary texts to provide a realistic picture of target demands.

Mauranen (1993) accentuates a contrastive linguistic approach, which can survey other dimensions of discourses. She studied economic texts written by English and Finnish professionals. Among other things, she found that Finnish writers use less metatext than Anglo-American writers. This more implicit rhetorical strategy in Finnish economic texts results in a more impersonal style of writing.

A. Mauranen (ibid) selected texts to fulfil the following criteria:

- genre (research reports),
- field (economics), and
- topic (forest economics models, taxation models).

She defines metatext as language units used to organise, and comment on the discourse, on the propositional content conveyed, in particular. She distinguished four different metatexts:

- connectors: conjunctions, adverbials and prepositional phrases,
- reviews: explicit indicators of an earlier stage of the text (present perfect tense prevails in reviews),
- previews: explicit indicators of a later stage of the text (present simple and future tense predominates in previews),
- action markers: indicators of discourse acts performed in the text. (present simple tense of performative verbs, but also expressions of immediate futurality).

Mauranen's empirical research revealed that Finnish writers' texts contain much less metatext (22.6%) in comparison with English authors' texts (54.2%). The clustering of various types of metatext also prevails in English writers' works. There are thus certain rhetorical preferences within a particular disciplinary discourse that are culture-based. Finnish discourse simply does not indicate what the text will do. It therefore does not prepare the reader for what follows. It also lacks retrospectiveness. Conclusions are left for readers to infer. They comprise much less guidance in this term.[18]

Anglo-American writers tend to involve explicit guidelines that help readers to find orientation in the text and facilitate interpretation better. The stronger signalling of the presence of the author together with the metatextual guidance practised by Anglo-American authors invites the reader to be guided by the author and helps them not to misunderstand the thesis.

18 Cultural differences can also interfere with the Czech learner's use of futural constructions in academic texts.

As Mauranen (ibid) claims, it is extremely important for professionals in every field to become aware of the differences in various registers. Members of minority cultures especially need to adapt to the appropriate writing skills of the English language to succeed in the heterogeneous academic context and to conform to the expectations of the target academic community.[19]

The danger of negative interlanguage transfer based on cultural differences was investigated by Yakhontova (2002). She studied cultural differences in conference abstracts written by Russians or Ukrainians and English writers. Russia and Eastern Europe are impacted by Teutonic (German) intellectual tradition (Yakhontova, 2002; Čechová, 2008). This tradition prioritises content to form. Emphasis is placed on theoretical issues. Anglo-Saxon texts are more writer-responsible, ensuring unambiguous understanding of the reader. The author's straightforwardness can be ascribed to the individual values of Western society. English texts use much instructive metadiscourse and a distinct formal structure. Slavic texts are preoccupied with content and devoid of textual organisers and formal structuring.

The authors conclude that similar studies might reveal contemporary stylistic preferences in different disciplines. In addition, the research proves that general academic discourse is not sensitive enough to display all the linguistic features as some of them are certainly subject to discipline specificity. E(S/G)AP course and courses of academic writing should always reflect the writing and style practice of the particular discipline.

Hyland and Milton (1997) researched how native and non-native English learners dealt with expressing certainty and qualification. Their corpora comprised works by Hong Kong students (non-native English students) and British school leavers of a similar age (native speakers). The researchers examined the various tools for expressing certainty and came to the following conclusions:

- *Will, may, would* and *always* occurred among the six most frequently used devices with significantly different frequencies. Non-native students used *will* twice as often as native students while native students preferred *would* whose frequency was twice as high in the native students' corpus.
- *May* occurred twice as often in the non-native production. In fact, it was the most frequently used marker of possibility.
- The verb *think* was almost an exclusive epistemic verb used both by native and non-native students, but was definitely three times as frequent in the latter corpus. This proves that non-native speakers use the same epistemic means, but in a different way and with a different frequency than their native counterparts.

19 Mauranen's findings support the hypothesis that the use of disciplinary language is subject to cultural differences, which can result in a negative interlanguage transfer.

- The research also indicates that non-native students used a more restricted range of epistemic expressions. The ten most prioritised expressions accounted for 75 of all epistemic structures. It can thus be concluded that native students were more tentative than non-native ones. The authors claim that weaker students simply employ fewer epistemic devices and their production is epistemically stronger. Thus, native speakers are naturally more tentative through a wider range of epistemic expressions.[20]
- Non-native speakers also appeared to be more personal and obviously transferred a more personal register to the academic genre. They obviously lacked in appropriacy and were incongruent with the academic context.

According to Hyland and Milton (ibid), experts tend to use epistemic devices together, in the so called epistemic clusters. Epistemic clusters are used to realise the multiple realisation of a single modality, which results in modal harmony.[21]

The research proves that native speakers used more epistemic clusters. 25 per cent of the modalised sentences contained at least two epistemic markers to weaken the strength of the claims. Non-native speakers used fewer epistemic clusters. In addition, the modalised statements were used to strengthen the accompanying propositions, and their clusters combined epistemic clusters incorrectly. Hyland and Milton (ibid) thus distinguish two types of epistemic clusters:

- Harmonic clusters (congruent) in which modal forms co-occur so that they achieve a congruent degree of certainty.
- Non-harmonic clusters (incongruent) in which modal forms are collocated in a manner that fails to achieve a congruent degree of certainty.

The research proves that non-native speakers are not able to achieve an appropriate degree of epistemic modality, and their manipulation of certainty is problematic for L2 students. The lack of such a command can be constraining to learners' academic and professional opportunities. Non-harmonic clusters can impact readers' judgements of coherence, comprehensibility and argumentation in a negative way.

Hyland (2006) and Simpson (2004) emphasise the importance of the corpus-based approach based on text analysis programs that generate frequency statistics. Using such an approach allows a comparison of genres and linguistic features on the basis of quantitative evidence. Unlike comprehensive corpora, text analysis programs provide quantitative evidence but also permit a more in-depth qualitative analysis and examination of the

20 Such a pragmatic inflexibility has also been proved by our research in terms of futural constructions (see Chapter 9).

21 We have also identified such epistemic clusters where expressions of futurality co-occurred together (see Chapter 7).

features in context from a pragmatic perspective. Quantitative analysis itself can never provide a complex and satisfactory interpretation of linguistic features[22].

22 From the functional pragmatic perspective, Rita Simpson (2004) distinguished two different functions of English formulaic structures in academic texts: discourse structuring and interactivity. She also observed the use of *be going to* (as an item of formulaic language) in spoken academic discourse. She expressed her surprise that *be going to* was found on the list of formulaic expressions as it is known to be a rather informal futural expression. She distinguished the following functions:

- Discourse or task management:
  I'm going to (gonna) go through and give some examples.
- Immediate sequencing and unfolding discourse:
  I'm going to (gonna) go back and say something that I forgot to say.

She claims that half the uses of the expression in the spoken academic discourse have this discourse (textual) function.

2 THE THEORY OF IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT L2 LEARNING AND TEACHING

2.1 INSTRUCTIONAL AND INTUITIVE LEARNING

We can distinguish instructional and intuitive learning. The principles of instructive teaching (formal instruction in language education) consider the role of environmental factors in second language acquisition (SLA). They can help identify whether informal instruction makes a difference to SLA. In our research, we will focus primarily on the instructional learning of grammar.

Traditionally, language teaching theory assumes that grammar can be taught. An acquisitional setting can be differentiated by the dichotomy of naturalistic SLA and classroom SLA. Unlike naturally occurring discourse, classroom discourse can be distorted and therefore can affect the route and rate of SLA in the classroom. Language instruction can have many purposes, e.g., to teach the learner the formal systems of L2, in particular grammar, phonology and lexis.

It is assumed that focusing on linguistic form aids the acquisition of grammatical knowledge through raising the learner's consciousness about the nature of target language rules. This approach is supposed to help the learner internalise the L2 system. This is true for both deductive and inductive methods, as their purpose is to provide practice focused on specific linguistic forms. The learner is to form a conscious mental representation, either inductively or deductively. This implies that the acquisition of a particular system unit may not be immediate.[23]

Two crucial questions must be considered: *1) Does formal instruction aid SLA?* and *2) What kinds of formal instruction facilitate SLA the most?*

The second question presupposes that formal instruction facilitates the SLA process but it is possible to recognise more and less effective instructional types. Consciousness-raising depends on:

- the degree of explicitness with which a rule is presented
- the degree of elaboration involved
- the intensity of the practice
- the particular techniques used
- the nature of the target rule (easier or more difficult to teach or to learn)

23 In our research, we will use delayed tests to assess learners' progress in acquisition.

The instruction can either aim for internalisation of the rule or its memorisation. What is essential is the learner's perspective. Contrary to the teacher's view, the learner can find the rules puzzling.[24]

A great deal of comparative research of methods did not succeed in showing that one instructional approach was more effective than another. What underlies all instructional methods is the focus on ways of instructional language education. Ellis (1985) identifies inductive, deductive and notional/functional instructions.

According to Ellis (1985), the role of instruction in SLA must be considered separately in terms of the effect instruction has on the route of development (i.e., the general sequence or specific order of acquisition), the effect instruction has on the rate of development (i.e., the speed at which learning takes place) and the success of development (i.e., the proficiency level finally achieved). Instruction can determine one, two or all these aspects. Ellis (1985) adds that "Studying the role of formal instruction in SLA is important both for developing a theoretical understanding of SLA and for language pedagogy. In the case of the former, it can shed light on how differences in environmental conditions affect SLA. In the case of the latter, it can help to test basic pedagogic assumptions such as whether the order in which grammatical structures are presented corresponds to the order in which they are learnt." Thus, **i**nstruction is taken to imply some form of consciousness-raising, targeted at specific linguistic features.

There have been a number of studies that investigated the effects of various instructions. Fathman (1975) used an oral production test to assess the grammatical knowledge of two hundred children aged from six to fifteen years, from diverse backgrounds. He found a highly significant correlation between the morpheme orders of two groups of learners and concluded that the order of acquisition remained constant, irrespective of instruction.

Perkins and Larsen-Freeman (1975) investigated the morpheme orders of twelve Venezuelan university students after they had undergone two months of language instruction upon arriving in the United States. They used two tasks to collect data: (1) translation, (2) a description task based on a non-dialogue film. The morpheme orders before and after instruction differed significantly in (1), but there was no significant difference in (2). The researchers concluded that where spontaneous speech is concerned, formal instruction does not influence development. Turner (1978, in Ellis, 1985)

24 In addition, instead of using appropriate language learning strategies, the learner tends to acquire strategies to get right answers.

investigated three L2 learners and found that the order of instruction of a set of grammatical morphemes did not correlate highly with the order of their acquisition. In other words, the teaching and learning orders were different. Taken together, these studies suggest (but do not prove) that formal instruction does not alter the order of acquisition of grammatical morphemes when the learner is engaged in language use and is focused on meaning.

The following two studies of second language learners suggest that instruction can have an effect on morpheme orders, although the effect is relatively minor and not long-lasting. Lightbown et al. (1980, in Ellis, 1985) investigated the performance of 175 French-speaking students of English on (1) a grammaticality judgement test, and (2) a communication task involving picture description. They found that the scores on (1) improved as a result of the instruction, but the overall scores fell back later (i.e., when students were no longer receiving instruction on the grammatical features tested). On (2) they found that the order of various noun and verb morphemes was different from the natural order.

In the above mentioned morpheme studies, students were given formal instruction in an environment where it was possible to meet natural language exposure outside the formal environment of a classroom. Fathman (1978, in Ellis, 1985) compared two groups of students, one learning English purely in a formal environment (in Germany) and the other in a combined learning environment (students learning English in the USA). The study proved a correlation in the orders produced by the two groups of learners. In 1979 Makino investigated nine morphemes produced in a writing task by 777 learners of English as a foreign language in Japanese secondary schools. The results correlated significantly with other studies carried out by Dulay, Burt and others. In 1981, Sajavaara collected spontaneous speech from Finnish learners of English as a foreign language. He found some disturbances in the natural order (position of the article) depending on what the mother tongue of the learners was. Pica (1983) also carried out a study comparing six learners of English as a foreign language. One group of learners received formal instruction in Mexico, the other were naturalistic learners in Philadelphia. Pica investigated eight morphemes and found significant correlations among the groups and with Krashen's natural order.

We can thus conclude that formal instruction seems not to have any marked effect on the morpheme order reported for naturalistic or mixed SLA. It is evident that when investigating the communicative use of L2, the morpheme order is either the same as the

natural order or differs from it only temporarily and only in a limited number of features (usually as a result of overlearning). Ellis claims that this conclusion holds true irrespective of the age of the learner (children versus adults) and of the environment (foreign or second language environment). Thus, formal instruction seems to have little effect on the morpheme order observed in spontaneous language use, but it is necessary to consider the fact that morpheme orders assess, measure and interpret the level of accuracy rather than the process of acquisition. It is thus advisable to find evidence in longitudinal studies.

The studies from the 1980s concluded that formal instruction is useless as the naturalistic sequence corresponds to the instructional sequence (Felix, 1981). Ellis opposed and explained that it was the result of a distorted pattern of communication which took place in the classroom. It is simply necessary to consider the characteristics of classroom input. Schumann (1978, in Ellis, 1985) studied the process of teaching adults, L2 learners, how to negate in naturalistic SLA. The instruction took 7 months. Schumann collected both elicited and spontaneous negative utterances. While elicited utterances revealed a significant development, spontaneous utterances showed no significant change. The results lead to the conclusion that the instruction influenced the learner's production only in 'test-like situations', but normal communication remained unaffected. Ellis (1985) thus postulates the following hypotheses:

a) Instruction does not circumvent the process responsible for the sequence of development evident in transitional structures such as negatives and interrogatives in naturalistic SLA.
b) When classroom learners are required to produce structures beyond their competence, idiosyncratic forms are likely to result.
c) The distorted input may prolong certain stages of development and slow down the emergence of some grammatical features.
d) Classroom learners are able to make use of knowledge acquired through formal instruction when they are focused on form (i.e., in discrete item tests).

Ellis claims that more research needs to be done to substantiate the hypotheses.

We can therefore conclude that formal instruction has little effect on sequence and order of development, but it has a positive impact on the rate and success of SLA. There are three theories explaining this research finding: non-interface position, interface position and variability position.

2.1.1 Non-interface position

The non-interface position distinguishes two kinds of linguistic competence: **(1)** acquisition and **(2)** learning. Acquisition occurs automatically in natural communication

when comprehensible input is available. Learning occurs as a result of formal study when the learner is instructed to consider formal aspects of L2. Acquired competence is based on subconscious and automatic principles. Learnt competence is the opposite. It is metalinguistic knowledge that is used to monitor the learner's language production. The non-interface approach considers both the competences as separate and unrelated. Acquisition is effective if the input is comprehensible, i.e., *i+1* (one level above the learner's actual command of comprehension).

The non-interface nature and separateness is justified as follows:

(1) there are cases when a learner acquired L2 without any formal learning, **(2)** learning can take place, but in a number of cases fails to become acquisition, **(3)** the best learners cannot master the whole L2 grammatical system. In addition, some grammatical rules are too difficult for an average learner to follow, use and automatise. Some users can even verbalise grammatical rules but cannot use them appropriately in spontaneous communication. It is thus obvious that there is no direct relationship between actual performance and conscious knowledge of the rule. Still, the non-interface position does not explain how formal instruction affects the rate and success of SLA. If formal instruction only aided learning, formal instruction might slow down the process of acquisition, which contradicts all the research findings presented above. In addition, environment is 'exposure-type' in a natural setting and therefore not adjusted to ensure comprehension. Hardly any natural environment meets the *i+1* property. We can thus conclude that formal instruction is valuable because of the focus on form, i.e., grammar instruction, and in the 'teacher talk', which saturates the comprehensible input necessary for intermediate- and lower-level students. Terrel et al. (1980, in Ellis, 1985) carried out a study investigating whether secondary school students were able to learn/acquire structures that were not explicitly stated in the syllabus. They focused on question forms and proved that students of L2 Spanish were able to acquire question forms without any direct teaching. Ellis thus claims that "acquisition of one linguistic rule can occur when the instruction is directed at learning other linguistic rules."

This may be the reason why formal instruction is effective. Ellis concludes that "classrooms foster more rapid development because they constitute 'intake environments', whereas for many learners, particularly adults, natural settings only afford 'exposure environments' and thus do not enable 'acquisition' to take place. It is not, however, formal instruction *per se* that enhances the development."

2.1.2 Interface position

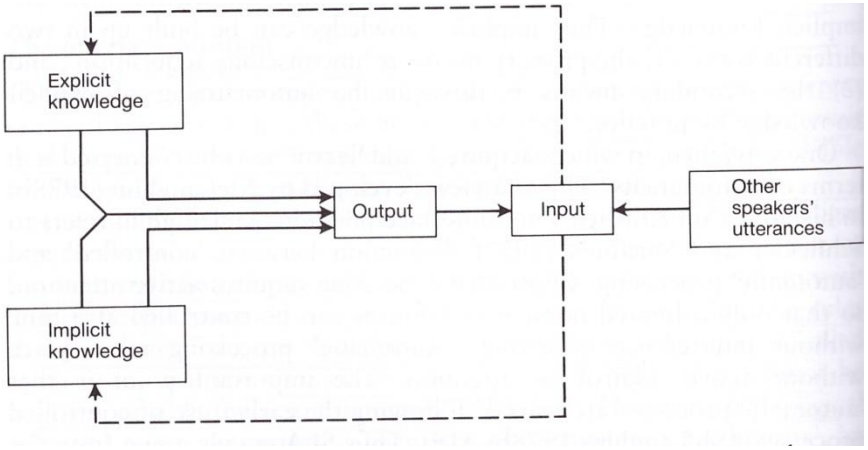
The interface position presupposes that "the learner possesses different kinds of L2 knowledge, these are not entirely separate, with the result that 'seepage' from one knowledge to the other occurs." Actual language behaviour is not based on the precise knowledge of presented rules as they do not describe the internal knowledge called upon in natural communication. Still, pedagogical rules are useful and purposeful. They facilitate acquisition by means of focusing learners' attention on such attributes and concepts of the real language that must be induced. Learnt knowledge is simply not turned into acquired knowledge directly. Knowledge of a pedagogical rule can have two benefits: **(1)** when the learner is ready to undertake a certain language concept, formal instruction may make its internalisation easier, and **(2)** formal instruction may facilitate practice for concepts that are acquired but not deeply internalised.

It is hypothesised that learning is related to secondary memory (holding any material for longer than two minutes), which gradually loses memorised knowledge unless it is occasionally used, but acquisition is related to tertiary memory, containing material never lost though not used. The interface position proponents believe that acquisition is a product of communicative experience, but the experience may rest on and source from material memorised and stored in the secondary system. Learning then turns into acquisition as the material transfers to tertiary memory (through experiencing communication). Acquired versus learnt (this dichotomy introduced by Krashen) is related to the difference between explicit and implicit learning. As Ellis claims, explicit knowledge turns into implicit by extensive practice. In other words, there are two ways of acquiring implicit knowledge: **(1)** by means of unconscious acquisition or **(2)** by means of automatising explicit knowledge by practice.

It appears that the term automaticity is essential because "controlled processing requires active attention so that only a limited number of features can be controlled at a time without interference occurring. 'Automatic' processing takes place without active control or attention."

Acquisition can thus be achieved by moving from a controlled to an automatic mode of operation. Instruction can serve as a consciousness-raising process through which explicit knowledge is practised until it is automatised. On the basis of extensive research, Ellis (ibid) differentiates a learner's production on the basis of the knowledge they use. An L2 learner can produce L2 output: **(1)** using only implicit knowledge, **(2)** using only

explicit knowledge and **(3)** using both implicit and explicit knowledge. Ellis claims that performance that is planned entirely or partly on the basis of explicit knowledge can provide material for implicit knowledge. If this happens frequently enough, the explicit knowledge becomes automated as a part of implicit knowledge.



Picture 7: The effect of implicit and explicit knowledge

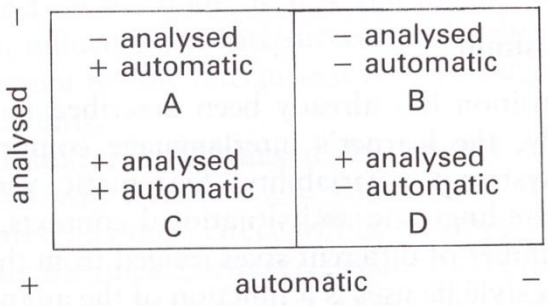
The process of acquisition can be hastened by explicit knowledge of pedagogical rules. Rules can have a positive impact on the speed of development. As the learner is 'primed' by knowledge of the rule, they take less time to perceive and internalise the essential features of the rule. L2 learners can thus have two opportunities to acquire L2 knowledge: **(1)** as an intake from the environment[25], or **(2)** by automatising L2 explicit knowledge through practice. While classroom learners can take advantage of both ((1) supplied by the classroom environment), naturalistic learners can mostly rely only on (1)).

2.1.3 Variability position

The variability position postulates that language use determines the knowledge to be used. Use and acquisition are therefore interrelated. Ellis states that "The kind of language that the learner engages in determines the kind of knowledge that he acquires. Similarly, different kinds of knowledge are used in different types of language performance. Thus, acquiring the necessary linguistic knowledge to perform one kind of activity does not guarantee the ability to perform a different kind of activity. For example, the effects of practice may be specific to the kind of activity that is being exercised."

25 Noticing hypothesis (Krashen, ibid)

(p. 238) Bialystok (1984) tries to research and explain the learner's variable control of the L2 system. She distinguishes two continua involving an analysed factor and a control factor. The control factor describes to what extent various items of the linguistic knowledge are accessible during a language performance. The access can be easy or difficult and it is thus related to automaticity. The analysed factor refers to the ability to represent form and meaning, to represent the structure of knowledge along with its content. The analysed factor thus refers to the explicit-implicit dichotomy. A learner who has gained analysed knowledge can operate with it, i.e., transform it, compare it, organise it and use it for problem solving. The two continua constitute four basic types of knowledge on the basis of their degree of analycity and automaticity.



Picture 8: Analysed and control factor

Ellis gives the following description of the four types and postulates two rules: **(1)** Different tasks require different types of knowledge. The most difficult tasks are those requiring knowledge that is marked on both factors (type C in the picture). The least difficult tasks are those that are unmarked on both factors (type B), while tasks requiring knowledge marked on just one factor, but unmarked on the other (types A or D) are intermediate. **(2)** Different kinds of learners can be identified according to which kind of knowledge they possess (types A, B, C, D).

Ellis gives the following examples: child learners and adult informal learners will be typically characterised by type B knowledge in the early stages. Formal L2 learners will be characterised by type D knowledge in the initial stages (more careful style) and type C in the later (more vernacular style). According to Ellis, even formal instruction can lead to automaticity in a number of ways even though it draws the learner's attention to an item to be analysed. If learners practise sentences modelling the use of plural forms, they focus on plurality markers. Students produce and listen to sentences containing the markers, still they are being exposed to a number of other linguistic phenomena. Drilling the input to be

analysed may facilitate the development of analysed knowledge but it may incidentally facilitate the development of unanalysed knowledge. Although formal instruction is aimed at the mastery of specific L2 forms, it may lead to the mastery of other L2 forms. According to Ellis, it still remains to be explained why the formal input enables learners to develop more rapidly than naturalistic learners. One of the explanations states that classroom learners can simply benefit from their unanalysed and analysed knowledge which will enable them to perform a range of different tasks.

Thus, formal instruction is effective because it saturates both analysed and unanalysed learning processes, from which classroom learners can benefit and consequently perform a wider range of linguistic tasks than naturalistic learners. This hypothesis has not been supported by extensive research of the classroom discourse that results from formal instruction and of the linguistic development that such discourse induces. Further research should find evidence on how non-learner factors impact the teaching and learning process. Teaching is not the same as learning. A learner's intake does not necessarily correspond to the classroom input and learners can follow a different learning route than the teacher designs in his teaching plan if it is logically acceptable. Logically constructed input can contribute, but its impact may emerge much later in the learner's performance. Ellis thus asks the key question: "To what extent should instruction be directed at raising learners' consciousness about the formal properties of L2, as opposed to providing opportunities for them to engage in natural communication?" Answers to the question still depend on the theoretic presuppositions of their authors. The proponents of the interface position consider grammar teaching as a short cut to communicative ability. Learners' attention is drawn to specific features of the code. They can thus practise them in and out of the classroom. They can gradually automatise them and subconsciously use them in fluent communication. Sharwood-Smith (1981) thus distinguishes two dimensions of teaching: (1) elaborateness and (2) explicitness. The dimension of elaborateness describes to what extent teaching provides brief or highly-structured explanations. The dimension of explicitness specifies whether the instruction is based on indirect clues or on standard pedagogical rules. Consciousness-raising does not necessarily require that the learner is able to verbalise what they have learnt. The variability position emphasises that instruction must provide an appropriate form of knowledge to saturate the specific goals of the learner, i.e., the type of language use that the learner needs to engage in.

2.2 EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT MEMORY, INDUCTIVE AND DEDUCTIVE REASONING

Form of knowledge is necessarily dependent on the memory employed in the learning process. The way knowledge is organised in long-term memory is explained by the theory of cognitive psychology. Plhákova (2011, p. 205) claims that long-term memory has a huge capacity, so knowledge stored there must be organised and sorted in some way. She thus distinguishes declarative and procedural memory.

Declarative memory keeps data in the form in which they were imprinted (a picture of the tree growing in front of one's house). Procedural memory contains rules and procedures by means of which sensible wholes can be formed. It contains rules enabling to formulate new sentences. In addition, it contains perfectly learnt, automatised skills such as swimming, cycling, or productive and receptive skills in terms of a foreign language.

Plháková also distinguishes two subsystems of memory: explicit and implicit. Data stored in explicit memory must be processed consciously, implicit knowledge can be stored without conscious learning (i.e., it is imprinted). Unlike the data of implicit memory, the content of explicit memory can be verbalised.

2.2.1 Explicit memory

The subsystem of explicit memory was divided into two independent systems by Tulving (1972, in Plháková, 2003): episodic and semantic memory.

Episodic memory serves to store and recollect events and incidents that are positioned in time and place and that are subjectively processed. It contains autobiographic data (the first day at school). It helps us to remember what we ate yesterday or which film we have seen. It comprises visual and auditive images and representations, but also tastes, smells and emotions. The more emotive the memory is, the longer it is stored. Actions that were emotionally neutral or that took place repeatedly are forgotten quickly. The data in autobiographic memory are ordered alongside a time axis. Thus, the memories can be accompanied by time expressions ('It happened when I was six.') Memories are not recalled from episodic memory as precisely as they were stored. Some details can be misinterpreted in the course of time.

Semantic memory serves for keeping and retrieving knowledge about words and terms, their properties and mutual relations. This subsystem also contains factual knowledge of the world. It contains data that are not related to any particular place or time. Students of English do not remember when and where they learnt grammar rules or new words. Plháková states that storing data in semantic memory is accompanied by the process of forgetting the original source of the information, i.e., circumstances under which the data were acquired. The circumstances might place restrictions on the usability (memorisation and retrievement) of explicit (structural) language knowledge acquired during instructional learning.

Semantic memory contains facts, abstract terms and diversified knowledge that can be expressed by means of language. Data are stored in this type of memory by verbal coding. Considering some simpler terms, such as a cat or a dog, these can be recalled in dual coding, i.e., not only by verbal but also visual images.

Semantic memory is ordered hierarchically, usually according to the degree of generality and associations. In addition, this hierarchy is subjective (each human being can have a different structure of their semantic memory) and its activation always depends on the situational context (different components are activated in various contexts). The model of semantic memory is therefore represented by nodes and their interconnections. Recent research has shown that the external situational context affects the recall of data from semantic memory. If we have learnt some material in a particular environment, we will recall it better under the same circumstances. The internal context is important as well. People recall memories better if their psychical state corresponds to the state in which the information was stored (the effect of congruence).

2.2.2 Implicit memory

In the past, implicit memory was considered to be synonymous with procedural memory. It was therefore believed that it contained mainly automatised senso-motor skills (e.g., walking, running, swimming) or fully automatised cognitive operations and procedures (grammar rules or elementary arithmetic and algebraic operations).

But procedural memory is supposed to be only one part of implicit memory. Implicit memory also comprises procedures that were originally explicit. This shift from explicit to implicit memory must therefore be accompanied by a transformation that

dissociates explicit memories from consciousness.[26] Still, both implicit and explicit memories are two independent subsystems.

Implicit memory has the following subsystems (Plháková, 2011, p. 214):

- priming, i.e., sensitivity to new incentives
- procedural memory for forming skills and habits
- classical conditioning (emotional reactions and muscles)
- non-associative learning (reflexes)

When a human being recalls data from memory, a number of subsystems are used simultaneously: when taking a test, they recall data from the semantic memory. Then, they write it during the test using senso-motor skill (writing), which activates episodic memory providing them with information from the previous test.

2.2.3 Inductive and deductive judging/reasoning

Inductive and deductive procedures are studied by cognitive psychology in terms of judging (Plháková, 2011, p. 273). Both inductive and deductive judgments must always be based on reasoning. Induction derives general conclusions from specific and independent observations. Deduction arises from a general rule or theorem that is applied to a particular case.

Inductive reasoning is based on two operations: generalisation and abstraction. Induction seeks to find general rules or relations that hold for all the selected categories. Some phenomena are preferred while others are neglected. The process of selection is called abstraction. Inductive reasoning tends to be misinterpreted in several ways:

- overgeneralisations: conclusions are too general,[27]
- confirmation bias: human beings tend to select such phenomena that support their views, and
- inadequate selection of phenomena: human beings select incorrect phenomena to verify their hypotheses.

Deductive reasoning can also be misinterpreted in a number of ways:

- It is affected by the content of theorems. The deductive procedures of the same type can be difficult if their content does not make enough sense.[28]
- Theorems are easily misinterpreted if they contain a number of expressions of quantity (all, no, some, or exactly one).
- Misinterpretation arises from incorrect mental representation of the theorem. People represent some general rules (axioms, theorems) by means of visualisations

26 This fact proved by cognitive psychology confirms Ellis's hypothesis that instructions received a by language class can be transformed and stored in implicit memory (automatisation).
27 Overgeneralisations are fairly frequent in the process of language learning and acquisition.
28 It is disputable to what extent grammar rules can be transformed and interpreted didactically.

(e.g., time lines for the phenomenon of temporality in foreign languages). But their representations can often be misleading.

Besides deductive and inductive reasoning, psychologists distinguish analogy as another means of reasoning and heuristic method. Analogy is based on the comparison of various phenomena. In foreign language learning and acquisition, reasoning by analogy is used in interlanguage and intralanguage contrastive analysis.[29]

Eysenk and Keane (2008, p. 233) explain the difference between explicit and implicit memory on the basis of conscious and unconscious recollection of a memory. Explicit memory is revealed if performance in tasks requires conscious recollection of any previous experience. On the contrary, implicit memory is revealed is performance in a task is facilitated even though conscious recollection is absent.

Implicit memory is based mainly on priming, which has been proven by repetition-priming research. The research has shown that processing a stimulus is faster and easier if the stimulus has been presented some time before. In addition, this repetition-priming effect is independent of the use of explicit memory.

Eysenk and Keane (2008, p. 235) also claim that explicit memory becomes more important (and very reliable in solving tasks that follow) if learners know that they have to pay attention and know the goal[30]. If learners' attention aims to fulfill more tasks (e.g., reading and listening) and learners do not know the goal (meaningless memorisation), then they use their implicit memory to solve tasks that follow.

2.3 EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT L2 LEARNING

Most psycholinguistic research aimed at acquisition processes is concerned with first language acquisition. These processes and complex mechanisms generate linguistic knowledge in an infant and they are predominantly largely implicit in nature. It is expected that second language acquisition involves a prominent explicit component. When trying to understand the overall nature and course of learning L2 from the psycholinguistic perspective, the explicit component must be taken into account. For most learners of L2, implicit, i.e., an automatic and effortless process is not possible according to Dörnyei (2009).

29 Analogy is also a source of interference such as in case of subordinate futurality in English and Czech.
30 Structured learning and teaching process is likely to employ explicit memory better.

2.3.1 The explicit-implicit dichotomy

Generally speaking, explicit has something to do with consciousness, while implicit is associated with unconscious, automatic, or indirect processes. These two terms are mostly related to learning with or without grammar rules, but the two terms are applied to three different concepts: learning, knowledge and memory. If we consider learning as the process of acquiring or encoding new information and knowledge, and memory as the storage and retrieval of knowledge, we might suggest that explicit knowledge is acquired through explicit learning and is stored in explicit memory. The same might hold for the implicit process. But current research shows that the learning processes are not so pure. The explicit sequence is considered problem-free, but the statement about implicit knowledge, learning and memory is considered problematic.

Dörnyei (ibid) defines explicit learning as "a conceptually unambiguous process characterised by the learner's conscious and deliberate attempt to master some material or solve a problem. From the information-processing perspective it involves the conscious intention to find regularities and to identify rules and concepts that are useful to capture these regularities." (2009, p. 136) This learning type is said to prevail in most school instruction. The key of successful explicit learning is to find the best ways of directing consciousness towards the target material.

Some skills and knowledge are not acquired through explicit learning processes but without conscious awareness. Implicit learning has been proved to exist by a great deal of research. Some of the research was based on experiments in which people memorised meaningless letter strings that were generated by a simple pattern and then classified novel strings according to whether they followed the same system of patterns or not. People were able to perform the classification task better than chance. Surprisingly, they were not able to describe the rules of the grammar. These implicit mechanisms operate not only in simple concepts such as classical conditioning but also in complex areas such as language acquisition. Some theoreticians claim that most learning is implicit, but the problem has recently been posed what the definition of implicit learning is. It is defined by means of the following properties (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 138):

- Bottom-up mechanism: Implicit learning is a system that functions by picking up patterns of co-variation in environmental displays resulting in the construction of knowledge in the form of neural networks. In short, it is sensitivity to certain regularities in environmental stimulus.

- No conscious attempt to learn the target material: Implicit learning is natural without any attempt to learn the phenomenon consciously on the part of the individual.
- Lack of awareness of learning: When learning implicitly, people are not aware that learning is taking place.
- Lack of awareness of the result: The process of implicit learning leads to results that the individual is unaware of. This means that implicit learning leads to implicit knowledge.

The above-mentioned properties of implicit learning might suggest that implicit learning is fully implicit at every possible level. But it is generally accepted that for effective implicit learning to take place, the learner needs to pay attention to the environmental stimulus that is to be processed implicitly. Thus, implicit learning requires attention, i.e., conscious access to what is to be learnt.

Eysenck and Keane (2008) define implicit learning as learning complex information without any complete verbalised knowledge of what we have learnt. Implicit learning is important because of its relation to implicit memory. There seems not to be any clear difference between implicit memory and implicit learning. In language acquisition, implicit learning is examined in tests by the acquisition of artificial grammar rules. It has been proved that learners manage to acquire artificial expressions on the basis of artificial rules even though they are not able to verbalise the rules. In addition, the existence of implicit learning was also proved by neurologists, who showed that different brain areas are used for explicit and for implicit learning (Eysenck and Keane, 2008, p. 237).

According to Brown (2007), the effectiveness of explicit and implicit learning "still occupies researchers' attention" (Brown, 2007, p. 291). Brown (ibid) defines explicit learning saying that it involves conscious awareness and intention.

On the other hand, Hulstijn (2005, p. 131) defines the term a bit more precisely: "Explicit learning is input processing to find out whether the input information contains regularities and, if so, to work out the concepts and rules with which these regularities can be captured." Implicit learning is accepted as the opposite of explicit learning, i.e., learning without conscious attention or awareness of what has been learnt.

As Brown (ibid) states, it is still a matter of further research to reveal and explain effectiveness of both implicit and explicit learning, both having a number of advantages and disadvantages. At the same time Brown asks: "under what conditions, for which learners, and for what linguistic elements is one approach, as opposed to the other,

advantageous for SLA, and how are we to measure explicit knowledge?" (Brown, 2007, p. 293)

Together with explicit learning, the awareness must be explained. Brown (ibid) defines it as analogous to conscious and opposed to subconscious learning, in which "learners are in intentional control of their attention to some aspect of input or output." Consciousness in learning can also be explained on the basis of (cognitive) psychology, from which the theory of (sub)conscious learning arose. Some theoreticians claim that noticing (i.e., attention paid to a linguistic element in a learner's input) is an essential prerequisite to a learner's ability to convert input into intake (Ellis, 1997). Brown (ibid) requires a balance between conscious and subconscious saying that "… a certain degree of conscious focus on form can be beneficial… but many learners worldwide are much too consciously involved in the forms of the target language, to the extent that the awareness of the intricacies of form blocks their ability to focus on meaning." (Brown, 293)

Attention to Formal Properties of Language	INFORMATION PROCESSING	
	Controlled	Automatic
Focal	(Cell A) Performance based on formal rule learning	(Cell B) Performance in a test situation
Peripheral	(Cell C) Performance based on implicit learning or analogic learning	(Cell D) Performance in communication situations

Picture 9: Controlled and automatic information processing

McLaughlin (1990, in Brown, 2007) disagreed with Krashen's view of a consciousness continuum, which was based primarily on child language acquisition. He came up with his own model that was aimed at adults. His main hypothesis says that "controlled processes are capacity limited and temporary, and automatic processes are relatively permanent". McLaughlin defines automatic processes as processes referring to processing a more accomplished skill where your brain can manage hundreds and thousands of bits of information simultaneously. Automatic processing is therefore very fast, unstoppable, effortless and unconscious. Automatisation is necessarily a result of restructuring in which "the components of a task are coordinated, integrated, or reorganised into new units allowing the old components to be replaced by a more efficient procedure." (McLaughlin, 1990 in Ellis, 2007)

Both controlled and automatic processing can occur with focal or peripheral attention to the task. According to McLaughlin, focal does not necessarily mean conscious only, as both focal and peripheral attention to a task may be conscious. Many controlled processes in SLA are certainly focal, but learning skills without any instruction can be peripheral. Equally, many automatic processes are peripheral, but some can be focal (Brown (ibid) gives an example of a pianist performing in a concert). We can therefore conclude that for every act of performing something, focal and peripheral attention occur simultaneously. McLaughlin therefore concludes that there is no long-term learning of new material without awareness. On the basis of McLaughlin's model, Brown (ibid) comes up with his own interpretation explaining how language forms (grammatical, phonological, discourse, lexical, etc.) are processed in terms of attention. Brown postulates: "If peripheral attention is given to language forms in a more advanced language classroom, focal attention is no doubt being given to meaning, function, purpose or person. Child second language learning may consist almost exclusively of peripheral attention to language forms. Most adult second language learning of language forms in the classroom involves a movement from cell A through a combination of C and B, to D. Peripheral, automatic attention-processing of the bits and pieces of language, also known as fluency, is thus an ultimate communicative goal for language learners." (Brown, 2007, p. 302)

	CONTROLLED: **New skill, capacity limited**	**AUTOMATIC:** **Well trained, practiced** **Skill capacity is relatively *un*limited**
Focal Intentional attention	A. Grammatical explanation of a specific point Word definition Copy a written model The *first* stages of "memorizing" a dialog Prefabricated patterns Various discrete-point exercises	B. "Keeping an eye out" for something Advanced L2 learner focuses on modals, formation, etc. Monitoring oneself while talking or writing Scanning Editing, peer-editing
Peripheral	C. Simple greetings The later stages of "memorizing" a dialog TPR/Natural Approach New L2 learner successfully completes a *brief* conversation	D. Open-ended group work Rapid reading, skimming Free writes Normal conversational exchanges of some length

Picture 10: The model of focal and peripheral attention

Ellis et al. (2009) strictly distinguishes the following three concepts that are interrelated:

- explicit and implicit learning
- explicit and implicit knowledge
- explicit and implicit instruction

Ellis et al. claim: "The distinctions between implicit and explicit knowledge and implicit and explicit learning are of central significance in both cognitive psychology and in second language acquisition research. The closely related distinction between implicit and explicit instruction is also important for language pedagogy. These distinctions address how we come to know what we know about a second language, how we store that knowledge and the use we make of it" (p. 1). On the basis of Ellis's thoughts, we might ask what the relation between the form of instruction and the forms of knowledge and learning is.

2.3.2 Implicit and explicit L2 learning

Ellis et al. (2009) define implicit and explicit learning in the following way:

- Implicit learning is based on generalisations arising from conspiracies of memorised utterances collaborating in productive schematic linguistic productions. The result (subsymbolic knowledge) reflects statistical sensitivity[31] to the structure of the learnt material. Learners remain unaware of the learning, but in their behavioural responses the knowledge is evident, though it cannot be verbalised.
- Explicit learning involves memorising a series of successive facts. The learning process therefore exploits working memory heavily. Explicit learning requires conscious processes resulting in symbolic knowledge represented in explicit form and it can be verbalised.

In the theory of second language acquisition, the broadly accepted distinction between the two processes was described by Krashen (1981). He strictly distinguished acquisition (subconscious internalisation of grammatical rules as a result of comprehending input) from learning (conscious formulation of explicit rules of grammar). The term (sub)conscious was later defined more profoundly by Schmidt (2001) by means of four crucial criteria restricting conscious learning processes:

- intentionality (intentional learning)
- attention (attended learning)
- awareness (explicit learning)
- control (controlled processing)

31 Ellis (ibid) defines implicitness on the basis of statistical occurrence of language phenomena in both the input and production. We will observe this statistical interpretation in our research (see Chapter 10).

Research in SLA hypothesised that some aspects of a second language can be learnt implicitly better than explicitly. Ellis et al. (2009) formulate the following questions that should be considered by further research:[32]

a) What aspects of L2 can be learnt implicitly?
b) What are the mechanisms of explicit learning available to the learner?
c) How necessary is explicit knowledge for the acquisition of L2?
d) What is the relationship explicit and implicit L2 knowledge?
e) How best can instruction aid L2 acquisition?

Thus, Ellis et al. (2009) try to separate the terms explicit/implicit learning and knowledge stating that these concepts are related, but learning refers to the processes involved in learning and knowledge refers to the products of learning. This distinction becomes apparent in the case where learners are able to reflect on knowledge acquired implicitly (without metalinguistic awareness) and they develop an explicit representation of it. Similarly, learning needs to be distinguished from instruction. While teachers usually hope that explicit instruction leads to explicit learning, it is not necessarily so.

On the basis of Schmidt's criteria of conscious learning, it can be induced that implicit learning excludes intentionality and awareness. But Schmidt (2001) distinguishes between two types of awareness: a) noticing (perception of a linguistic phenomenon) and b) metalinguistic awareness (analysis of a linguistic phenomenon). It is metalinguistic awareness only that requires conscious processing of abstract rules. Schmidt (ibid) argues that implicit learning always involves noticing[33]. What distinguishes it from explicit learning is a lack of metalinguistic awareness.

The efficiency of implicit and explicit learning was researched by Reber (1991, in Ellis at al., 2009). His research team carried out research into the two types of learning, using artificial languages. Two groups of students were asked to memorise a set of letter strings of an artificial language without any feedback (implicit learning condition) or to figure out the underlying rules of the same letter strings (explicit learning condition). In a judgment test, both groups were then asked to decide if other strings followed the same rules that they met in the training. The findings might be summarised in the following way:

- implicit learning was observed
- no difference between the average test scores of the implicit and explicit learning groups was found in case of simple rules

32 We will attempt to provide empirical answers for questions a), c) and e) with respect to futural construction in the professional economic context (see Chapter 10).
33 Noticing is thought to be necessary for both explicit and implicit learning. We will also examine to what extent ESP learners are able to notice futural constructions. It is likely that phenomena which cannot be noticed will not be learnt neither by implicit nor by explicit instruction.

- implicit learning proved more efficient for complex rules
- test scores of the explicit learning group demonstrated much greater variation than those of the implicit group, and better scores were achieved by students with good analytical skills

In addition, implicit and explicit learning must be studied from two different perspectives. Each grammatical structure involves two distinctive rules: a) rules of form and b) rules of use (function, meaning). Thus, the question arises, whether learners are able to induce both types of grammar rules from exposure to input when their attention is focused on meaning. This dissociation was researched by Williams (2005) proving that inductive learning of form is dissociable from the learning of functions realised by the forms. The two different processes are called segmentation (form) and distribution (function) by Williams (ibid). According to Williams (ibid), efficiency of inductive learning depends on two factors:

- highly developed phonological short-term memory
- the language background, i.e., prior experience of learning languages

Different research was done by Leow (1997), who investigated implicit and explicit learning and its correlation with recognition and production of Spanish morphological forms. Leow asked students of L2 Spanish to think aloud when completing a crossword that exposed them to a number of morphological forms. This think-aloud process was subsequently interpreted qualitatively to show the extent to which students used cognitive processes, i.e., meta-awareness. After that, students were assigned a multiple-choice recognition task and a fill-in-the-blank written production task. Leow proved that there is high correlation between the level of awareness with their ability to recognise and produce correct target forms. It follows from the research that learning was explicit rather than implicit. Ellis et al. (2009, p. 9) conclude that the general finding of the majority of studies is that "explicit learning is more effective than implicit learning. No study has shown that implicit learning worked better than implicit learning. However, two studies found no difference between implicit and explicit learning. There is also some evidence to suggest that explicit learning is more effective with some linguistic features than others."[34] Explicit learning appears to be more effective in case of simple structures (e.g., subject – verb inversion) but not in case of more complex structures (e.g., pseudo-cleft sentences). Ellis

34 It is one of the goals of our research to show to what extent implicit and explicit instructions are effective in terms of expressing futurality.

et al. (ibid) also hypothesise that the level of proficiency plays an important role, claiming focused condition proves most effective with low-proficiency learners.

2.4 IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT L2 KNOWLEDGE[35]

L2 knowledge is a term expressed by Ellis et al. (2009) as "linguistic knowledge", i.e., knowledge of the features of a specific language "derived from impoverished input with the help of Universal Grammar" (innatism). Cognitive psychology (connectionism) describes knowledge as a network of nodes and their connections of various strengths that dictate the ease with which rules can be accessed. Connectionists also believe that linguistic learning is driven by input. Both innatists and connectionists propose that linguistic competence in SLA consists primarily of implicit L2 knowledge. They considerably differ in their view of the importance of explicit knowledge.

Another definition of explicit and implicit knowledge can be based on the difference of declarative and procedural knowledge:

- Implicit knowledge is procedural, i.e., students behave in accordance with grammatical rules.
- Explicit knowledge is declarative, i.e., students know facts about L2, which they can declare explicitly.

In the development of implicit knowledge, there are developmental sequences leading gradually to target-like use and form of a structure. Explicit knowledge declared by students is often imprecise and fuzzy (Ellis et al., 2009), which is sometimes caused by the fact that L2 students have little or no knowledge of proper notions and terminology. With the increase of proficiency, even explicit knowledge becomes defined better.

The nature of the two types of knowledge is in how they affect L2 students' production. Explicit knowledge has two essential functions: to monitor and to edit production. These two processes certainly require sufficient time to access the relevant declarative facts in L2 production. Thus, explicit knowledge cannot be available in spontaneous language use if it is not automatised to a great extent. But implicit knowledge develops by means of automatisation separately. Ellis et al. (2009, p.13) claim that "sequences produced initially through the application of declarative rules can come to be

35 It is not the aim of the dissertation to investigate the level of ESP learners' implicit and explicit knowledge. This concept will therefore be introduced only briefly to complete the theory of implicitness and explicitness.

performed automatically if they are sufficiently practised. That is, it is not rules themselves that become implicit, but rather the sequences of language that the rules are used to construct."

Birdsong (2006, in Ellis et al., 2009) emphasises that there are age constraints that must be considered. While explicit knowledge is learnable at any age, the ability to learn L2 implicitly is limited and decreases with growing age[36]. On the other hand, explicit knowledge is limited by other, mainly cognitive, differences, namely analytical skills needed to memorise, deduce and induce explicit linguistic facts.[37]

2.4.1 The measurement of implicit and explicit knowledge

As it has been stated above, language acquisition involves both implicit and explicit learning and the results of the two learning processes are a mixture of implicit and explicit second language knowledge. It is therefore important to find efficient testing tools to measure both types of knowledge reliably.

Four basic types of measurement were distinguished by Doughty (2003):

- Constrained, constructed responses
  - Written production (e.g., correct sentences containing errors)
  - Oral production (e.g., recall of isolated sentences)
  - Metalinguistic judgment responses
  - Selected responses
    - Comprehension (e.g., matching pictures to sentences)
    - Production (choosing from a list of words to complete a sentence)
    - Other (e.g., recognition of words)
- Free responses
  - Comprehension (e.g., translate a second language narrative into English)
  - Production (e.g., picture description)

According to Ellis et al. (2009, p 27), every efficient and reliable testing system should always reflect two characteristics: i) the extent to which the use of language is controlled and ii) whether comprehension or production is involved. Another dimension must be added to those proposed by Doughty (ibid), which is the aspect of the type of tested knowledge: implicit or explicit.

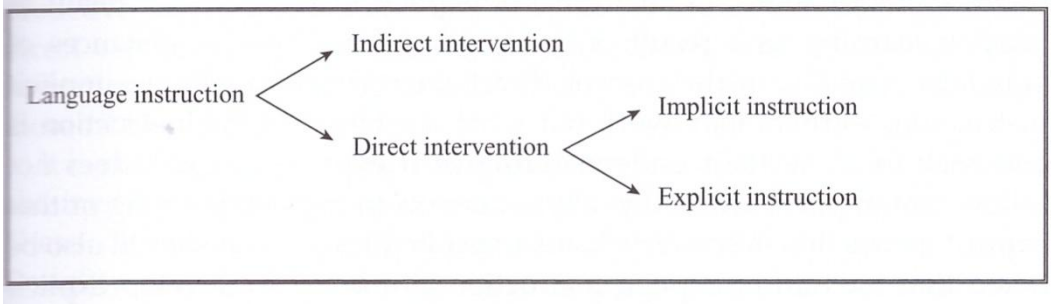
36 It appears that university graduates (aged from 19 to 25) involved in our research might not be able to activate their implicit knowledge to a sufficient extent.
37 On the other hand, university undergraduates are likely to have a good cognitive capacity to acquire and employ explicit knowledge.

2.5 IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT L2 INSTRUCTION

Ellis (2005) defines instruction as direct or indirect intervention. While indirect intervention is based on learning from experience (e.g., in lessons observing a task-based syllabus), in direct intervention it is always specified what learners are expected to learn (as it is often realised on the basis of a structural syllabus).

Implicit and explicit instructions can be derived from the difference between direct and indirect intervention. Implicit instruction leads learners to infer rules without awareness. Learners do not focus on form primarily, but on the meaning while being given a number of patterns or exemplars. Learners are simply supposed to internalise the rules or patterns without their attention being explicitly focused on them. Indirect intervention is therefore always implicit. Still, there is also direct intervention that can be implicit. For instance, some grammatical structures can be determined, but dealt with in such a way that learners are not aware of them. It is the environment which is adapted, creating opportunities to learn without drawing learners' explicit attention to particular language phenomena.[38]

Explicit instruction involves rules to be learnt within the learning process, encouraging learners to create metalinguistic awareness of the rules. Explicit instruction can be realised inductively or deductively. The inductive process leads learners to discover rules themselves (e.g., by means of guided discovery activities). The deductive process provides learners with the exact grammatical description of the rules. Thus, explicit instruction is always direct intervention.



Picture 11: Classification of language instruction

In addition, Ellis distinguishes proactive and reactive implicit and explicit instruction.

38 Such an environment can be created through a favourable input (enriched with particular structures).

- Reactive implicit instruction involves task-based teaching in which attention arises as the tasks are performed.
- Proactive implicit instruction elicits the forms first and then creates opportunities for practising it naturally when performing tasks.
- Reactive explicit instruction occurs when teachers provide explicit feedback, often metalinguistic explanation of learner's errors.
- Proactive explicit instruction occurs when instruction precedes any practice, or when learners are asked to discover rules on the basis of the data provided.[39]

Implicit FFI	*Explicit FFI*
• Attracts attention to target form	• Directs attention to target form
• Is delivered spontaneously (e.g. in an otherwise communication-oriented activity)	• Is predetermined and planned (e.g. as the main focus and goal of a teaching activity
• Is unobtrusive (minimal interruption of communication of meaning)	• Is obtrusive (interruption of communicative meaning)
• Presents target forms in context	• Presents target forms in isolation
• Makes no use of metalanguage	• Uses metalinguistic terminology (e.g. rule explanation)
• Encourages free use of the target form	• Involves controlled practice of target form

Picture 12: Explicit and implicit FFI

As Ellis et al. (2009, p. 18) claim, there is no correlation between explicit and implicit teaching versus implicit and explicit learning. Instruction must be seen from a perspective external to the learner. On the contrary, learning refers to a learner's perspective. Explicit instruction can obviously result in implicit learning and vice versa. In addition, it is also the aim of explicit instruction to develop both explicit and implicit knowledge.

Extensive research has been done to show the effects of both types of instruction. Implicit instruction studies treated input as enriched, i.e., including the target structure that learners were asked to process for comprehension, or as a set of sentences which learners were asked to memorise. Explicit instruction included metalinguistic explanation, followed by further practice and production of the target structure.[40]

Doughty (1991) researched the two types of instruction which were tested in the process of acquisition of relative clauses. Input was realised by texts written to contain

39 In our research, we will include reactive explicit instruction in the overall explicit instruction that is to be investigated (to maximise explicitness). Analogously, implicit instruction will also include reactive implicit instruction to maximise implicitness. Thus, feedback and correction provided by the instructor will only be explicit in the case of explicit instruction and implicit in the case of implicit instruction (see Chapter 10).
40 In our research, we will observe this research method (see Chapter 10).

examples of clauses with relativised direct objects. One group of students were given support in the form of lexical and semantic rephrasing and sentence clarification strategies (reactive approach). The other group received instruction in the form of explicit rule statements and onscreen sentence manipulation (proactive approach). Similarly, Robinson (1996) did research setting four instructional conditions:

(a) an implicit condition, based on memorising sentences containing the target structures (proactive implicit instruction),
(b) an incidental condition consisting of exposure to sentences containing the target structure in a meaning-centred task (proactive implicit instruction),
(c) a rule-search condition, based on identifying the rules (direct explicit instruction), and
(d) an instructed condition, based on written explanations of rules that were provided (indirect explicit instruction).

Doughty's and Robinson's research results differ significantly. While Doughty reported no difference between the results of the first and the second group of students, Robinson (ibid) found significant differences between the results of implicitly instructed groups [(a) and (b)] and explicitly instructed groups [(c) and (d)]. But there were no differences between the scores of (a) versus (b). In addition, it was the (c) condition that significantly outperformed all the other types of instruction. Direct explicit instruction was therefore found to be the most effective way in comparison with the other three.

The extent to which explicit and implicit interface each other is still a matter of further research. There are three positions in this issue (Ellis et al., 2009, p. 21):

- The non-interface position claims that acquisition processes of implicit and explicit knowledge are completely separated because they involve different acquisitional mechanisms and they are stored in different parts of the brain. In addition they are accessed by means of different processes.
- The strong interface position claims that explicit knowledge can be derived from implicit knowledge, and explicit knowledge can be converted into implicit knowledge by means of practice (mechanical or communicative in nature).
- The weak interface position acknowledges the possibility of explicit knowledge becoming implicit. This can be done by means of practise if the learner is developmentally ready to acquire the form, or it is admitted that declarative knowledge can have top-down influences on perception as it enables learners to notice the linguistic phenomena and the gap between the input and their level of linguistic competence. In addition, output based on explicit knowledge can serve as an input for further implicit knowledge.

2.6. EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT STRATEGIES IN THE L2 CURRICULUM

The ability of learners to use various explicit and implicit strategies when developing their grammatical competence is delimited by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages:

> 6.4.7.7 Learners may (be expected/required to) develop their ***grammatical competence***:
>
> a) inductively, by exposure to new grammatical material in authentic texts as encountered;
>
> b) inductively, by incorporating new grammatical elements, categories, classes, structures, rules, etc. in texts specially composed to demonstrate their form, function and meaning;
>
> c) as b), but followed by explanations and formal exercises;
>
> d) by the presentation of formal paradigms, tables of forms, etc. followed by explanations using an appropriate metalanguage in L2 or L1 and formal exercises;
>
> e) by elicitation and, where necessary, reformulation of learners' hypotheses, etc.

3 THE ROLE OF INSTRUCTION AND INPUT

3.1 EXPLICITNESS AND IMPLICITNESS AS PEDAGOGICAL AND DIDACTICAL CONCEPTS

The distinction between implicit and explicit learning is a psychological concept that was adopted from cognitive psychology. Thus the difference between implicit and explicit instruction is predominantly based on psychological parameters. The main difference between the two consists in the absence (implicit) or presence (explicit) of awareness. There are attempts to use the psychological classification of learning and instruction to constitute more pedagogical concepts and to combine language learning and teaching theories with the psychological background. Psychological concepts do not reflect the classroom reality (activities of the teacher and students and aspects of the curriculum).

Ellis (2012) created and elaborated on the concept of form-focused instruction (FFI) as follows: "Form-focused instruction is used to refer to any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form." (p. 271) Furthermore, he differentiates a more traditional approach referred to as focus on forms from a focus on form, whose aim is to draw learners' attention to form when communicating in L2. "The term 'focus-on form' is used to refer to an approach that involves an attempt to induce incidental acquisition through instruction by drawing learners' attention to linguistic forms while they are communicating." (p. 272) The more traditional focus-on-forms instruction is to help learners master L2 structures making the target language explicit (e.g., by means of enumerating target structures in syllabi and exploiting pedagogical grammar). This approach presupposes directing learners' attention and intentional learning on the part of learners.

The focus-on-form and focus-on-forms concepts therefore reflect the more pedagogical distinction between language-as-object and language-as-tool orientations. Still, it uses the psychological concepts of implicit and explicit learning.

Aspect	*Focus on form*	*Focus on forms*
Orientation	Language-as-tool	Language-as-object
Type of learning	Incidental	Intentional
Primary focus of attention	Message	Code
Secondary focus of attention	Code	Message
Acquisitional processes	Interpsychological mediation; intrapsychological mediation; noticing; noticing-the-gap; modified output.	Conscious rule-formation; proceduralization; automatization; monitoring
Syllabus type	Task-based	Structural
Target selection	Proactive and reactive	Proactive
Instructional processes	Tasks; scaffolded production; dynamic assessment; input-priming; negotiation of meaning; corrective feedback; consciousness-raising through tasks	Exercises; consciousness-raising through the provision of explicit rules; structured input; controlled production practice; free production practice; corrective feedback

Picture 13: Aspects of Focus-on-form and Focus-on-forms instruction

In the case of the focus-on-form approach, language learning is considered as incidental. It occurs even though the learner is not consciously attempting to learn. To the contrary, the focus-on-forms approach results in intentional learning as language is treated as an object. But Ellis (2012, p. 273) claims that "there is always possibility that incidental acquisition of some structures will occur though they are not the explicit target of the lesson". We can thus conclude that intentional learning is always incidental at the same time. In focus-on-form instruction, the main goal is to develop learners' ability to convey and understand messages and meet the intended communicative purposes. Still, there can be stages during which learners have to pay attention to the code. Similarly, in focus-on-forms instruction learners can have an opportunity to process messages though the primary goal is to use the code accurately.

The rationale behind the focus-on-form instruction (FFI) results from sociocultural theory and interactionist-cognitive theories, namely intra- and inter-psychological processes involved in learning, modified output, noticing and noticing-the-gap. In contrast, focus-on-forms instruction (FFSI) supports skill-learning by involving conscious rule-formation, proceduralisation, automatisation and monitoring.

The two approaches can differ in the organisation of teaching, but also in expected learners' responses. The FFI syllabus is predominantly task-based while FFSI rests on a structural syllabus. FFI expects a response to a linguistic problem that a learner has experienced when performing a task, i.e., reactively. FFSI necessarily selects linguistic targets in advance. Thus, tasks focused on linguistic targets yield responses that are determined proactively. Ellis (2012, p. 273) asserts that "the instructional process associated with each type of instruction differ". FFI is associated with meaning-focused interaction while FFSI relies on explicit rule provision and practice (exercises of various kinds).

Ellis (2012, p. 273) emphasises that corrective feedback is provided by both FFI and FFSI and claims that teachers and learners do not always share a common purpose. FFI can be interpreted as FFSI by students and vice versa. In addition, instructional context is a dynamic variable being oriented and reoriented by both learners and teachers even within a single lesson or a single activity. The intended instruction does not necessarily end up as planned. In addition, any lesson can be an amalgam of both FFI and FFSI.

The FFI and FFSI techniques can differ in obtrusiveness. Doughty and Williams (1998) distinguish between input flood and input processing. Input flood is an unobtrusive technique and input processing is obtrusive. The obtrusiveness results from attention directed to the target feature. Materials used to saturate input flood only expose learners to multiple exemplars of the target feature. Attention paid to the target structure is minimised (unintentional). The degree of attention also correlates with the degree of explicitness and elaborateness. The criteria of explicitness and obtrusiveness can be used to delimit the FFI and FFSI approaches. While the FFI approach implements techniques low in explicitness and obtrusiveness, the FFSI approach requires high explicitness and obtrusiveness. Explicitness and obtrusiveness are equivalent variables to a large extent.

The degree of explicitness can be further developed with respect to how rules are presented. Explicit instruction is to develop metalinguistic awareness of rules. This can be done deductively or inductively (Ellis, 2008). When a rule is given or presented to learners, the awareness of the rule is developed deductively. If learners are asked to work out the rule themselves, the explicitness is realised in an inductive way.

Implicit instruction does not necessarily avoid inducing learners to attend to a form. The main difference is based on directing or attracting attention of exemplars. While explicit instruction directs learners' attention to exemplars of linguistic forms, implicit instruction attempts to attract attention. Explicitness thus develops conscious mental

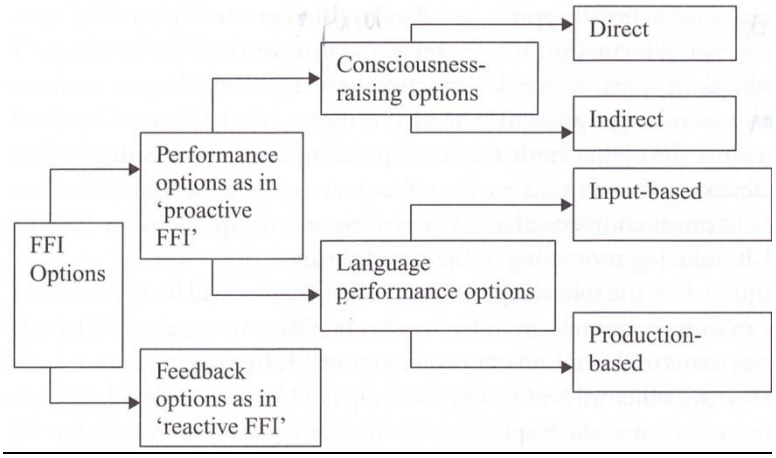
representation of linguistic forms. Implicit instruction can offer exemplars of the forms in communicative input but primarily does not build awareness or understanding of any rules.

Ellis (2012) combines the instructional approaches with the degree of explicitness claiming that explicit instruction requires the FFSI approach and implicit instruction requires the FFI approach. Implicit and explicit instruction do not exclude other approaches. Implicitness does not necessarily involve tasks focusing on meaning only. Similarly, explicit instruction can involve meaning-focused tasks. By assigning FFI and FFSI approaches the psychological concepts, the pedagogical and didactic interpretation is embedded in the theory of implicitness and explicitness.

Implicit FFI	*Explicit FFI*
• attracts attention to language form	• directs attention to language form
• language serves primarily as a tool for communication	• language serves as an object of study
• delivered spontaneously and incidentally (e.g., in an otherwise communication-oriented activity)	• predetermined and planned (e.g. as the main focus and goal of a teaching activity)
• unobtrusive (minimal interruption of communication of meaning)	• obtrusive (interruption of communication of meaning)
• presents target forms in context	• presents target forms in isolation
• no rule explanation or directions to attend to forms to discover rules; no use of metalanguage	• use of rule explanation or directions to attend to forms to discover rules; use of metalinguistic terminology
• encourages free use of target form.	• involves controlled practice of target form.

Picture 14: Differences between implicit and explicit focus-on-form instruction

To fully distinguish and define the explicit and implicit instructions as well as FFI and FFSI approaches, it is necessary to consider both the instructional and the internal learner's perspective.



Picture 15: Classification of focus-on-form instruction options

Ellis (2012, p. 277) attempts to anchor the psychological distinction between implicit and explicit learning within the theory of foreign language learning. Primarily, he classifies focus-on-form instruction with respect to reactive and proactive approaches. The reactive approach provides responses to linguistic problems that learners have experienced when performing tasks. The proactive approach designs content so that linguistic targets are determined proactively. The reactive FFI offers teachers feedback options. The proactive FFI defines teachers' performance options.

The performance options are of two types: consciousness-raising options and language-processing options. The former options involve explicit grammar instruction to develop learners' explicit knowledge of L2 features. These options can be both direct (deductive) or indirect (inductive). Direct instruction provides explicit explanation of L2 features provided by the teacher and/or the instructional material. Indirect instruction makes learners develop their own explicit knowledge of L2 structures by performing various consciousness-raising tasks.

Proactive FFI also covers the so-called language performance (processing) options that can be input- or production-based. Production-based options can involve text-manipulating activities or text-creating activities. Text-manipulating supplies learners with sentences that they are required to produce or work with, such as gap-fills. Text-creating activities require learners to produce their own sentences in a production task.

3.2 EFFECTS OF INSTRUCTION ON L2 ACQUISITION

Ellis (2012, p. 278) claims that FFI has always been an area of interest to both researchers and language teachers, who wanted to know whether FFI 'works' (i.e., whether it actually results in L2 acquisition). The dispute on whether FFI is useful or not started in the 1960s and the 1970s when extensive research showed that learners followed a universal order of acquisition. The postulate was supported by identical development stages of specific grammatical structures. This universal order and development stages, stable under various instructional models, led to questioning effects of FFI.

Ellis (2012, p. 278) presents a number of studies that investigated the correlation between a type of FFI and the level of learners' acquisition as well as studies that compared acquisitional process of FFI students and naturalistic learners. One of many hypotheses claims that instruction is effective if it is directed at structures in line with the developmental sequence, i.e., on the appropriate development stage. This hypothesis was stated as a maxim (Teachability Hypothesis): "instruction can only promote language acquisition if the interlanguage is close to the point when the structure to be taught is acquired in a natural setting" (Ellis, 2012, p. 279). There exist studies suggesting that instruction does not support acquisition. Some of them attempt to prove that instruction can even impede it. Still, the majority of the studies indicate that instructed learners learn more rapidly and achieve a higher level of proficiency than non-instructed learners. Thus, researchers still doubt the universality of the claim that instruction is powerless to affect the route of L2 grammatical development.

It appears that the effect depends more on the type of instruction. Ellis (ibid) presents Long's hypothesis that FFI is more effective than FFSI. In other words, some theoreticians claim that direct intervention in learners' interlanguage development to implant specific grammar forms is unhelpful. They presuppose that it is more effective to enhance natural L2 acquisition to draw learners' attention to forms that incidentally arise in lessons. We can thus conclude that research has still failed to prove Teachability Hypothesis.

De Keyser (2003) studied the route of acquisition. In his studies, he argued that explicit knowledge can be automatised through proceduralisation of declarative knowledge. Proceduralisation rests on sufficient and appropriate practice. Automatised explicit knowledge is then indistinguishable from implicit knowledge.

Ellis (2012, p. 280) hypothesises that the natural route of acquisition becomes evident in data reflecting implicit knowledge of L2. But as explicit knowledge can be proceduralised, it can develop any linguistic feature in any order and it can also develop control of specific features irrespective of learners' developmental level. Empirical research shows that learners can benefit from instruction even though they are not developmentally ready. Thus, both FFI and FFSI may be effective.

3.2.1 Consciousness-raising

Consciousness-raising is supposed to be an effective approach as it may saturate noticing (noticing hypothesis). Through facilitating noticing, it is hypothesised to develop implicit knowledge. Thus, explicit knowledge can support the development of implicit knowledge. The proponents of this theory (DeKeyser, 1998) claim that explicit knowledge can be not only contributing to the process of L2 acquisition but also necessary for development to take place. Ellis opposes that such a definitive statement might hold for adults but not for young learners. More variables therefore need to be taken into consideration.

Consciousness-raising also rests on the theory conceptualisation. In terms of grammar structures, conceptualisation refers to conceptually organised grammatical knowledge which links forms and their semantic and functional concepts. According to Lantolf and Thorne (2006) systematic conceptualising instruction observes three fundamental principles:

1) the instruction needs to be organised around coherent theoretical units,

2) it provides exemplification of the target features, structures and forms (diagrams, charts and other visualisations), and

3) learners must verbalise the explicit explanations to foster internalisation.[41]

Such an approach is explicit and elaborate enough.

Ellis (2012, p. 282) presents results of a study conducted in a university foreign language course. It was a piece of long-term research in a class that met three times a week for 15 weeks. The instruction should have made students aware of gaps in their knowledge of preterite and imperfect tenses in Spanish. All the three principles were observed. Verbalisation and visualisation were to facilitate understanding and internalise the explicit

41 In our research we observe these principles of conceptualisation (see Chapter 10, Appendix 7 and Appendix 8).

information to automatise it for communication. The result of the research showed that students' explanations became more and more accurate. The target structures were also used more accurately. Thus, researchers concluded that the development in conceptual understanding leads to better accuracy in the use of grammar features.

Lantolf and Thorne (2006) oppose that the results can be affected by testing methods used to measure acquisition. Explicit knowledge is favoured in the following task types: written production, fill-in-the-blank exercises, translation and multiple-choice tests. The results in those test types are significantly better than in oral production. Ellis (2012, p. 282) asserts that written production allows L2 learners to monitor their use of knowledge better than in oral production. Clearer explicit knowledge does not necessarily enhance spontaneous oral communication.

3.2.1.1 Direct and indirect consciousness-raising

Ellis (2012) declares that there is enough research evidence that consciousness-raising tasks are effective in developing explicit L2 knowledge. It is still not clear which types of consciousness raising tasks are more effective than others. Ellis (2012, p. 283) distinguishes direct and indirect ways of consciousness-raising, which correspond to the deductive and inductive instructional approaches: "Direct consciousness-raising takes the form of explanations of linguistic features either provided by a teacher or by a textbook. Indirect-consciousness-raising is catered for by consciousness-raising tasks that assist learners to discover for themselves how linguistic features work." Ellis (ibid) found that both direct and indirect consciousness-raising result in significant improvement and development of target structures, yet teacher-provided metalinguistic explanations (direct instruction) lead to more durable gains. But Ellis (ibid) enumerates other studies proving that both direct and indirect approaches have the same effect.

Mohamed (2001, in Ellis, 2012) compared the effects of direct and indirect grammar instruction on 51 adult learners of English as a second language. Direct instruction was based on written explanations of rules and examples. Indirect instruction comprised consciousness-raising tasks that learners were to perform. She found that both direct and indirect instructions led to better performance, but the achievements reached after indirect instruction were significantly greater. Ellis (ibid) points out that lower-level learners (lower-intermediate) found both the instructions difficult.

Pesce (2008, in Ellis, 2012) worked with two groups of German learners of Spanish. In the teacher-instructed group, students were given a direct explanation of the imperfect tense. The self-discovery group used the same materials but had to induce the rules themselves. Both the groups were assigned a pre-test, an immediate post-test and a delayed post-test. Pesce (ibid) showed that the teacher-instructed group managed better in the delayed post-test and the self-discovery group performed better in the immediate post-test.

It appears that both the effects of direct and indirect instruction can be effective but the effectiveness depends on a number of variables (age, form, delay, testing method).

3.2.2 Performance-based instruction

Ellis (2012, p. 284) distinguishes performance-based instruction from consciousness-raising instruction. Performance-based instruction can either be input-based or production-based. Learners instructed primarily on the base of input (input-based) are exposed to an input that they are required to process. Ellis (ibid) defines the process on the basis of three fundamental features:

- Teachers direct learners to notice the presence of a specific feature in the input.
- Learners are instructed to comprehend the meaning of the feature.
- Learners have to rehearse the feature in their short-term memory.

The hypothesis of the effectiveness of input-based instruction rests on the psycholinguistic presumption that intake can be manipulated better than the production interlanguage system. Changes in the production interlanguage system can be triggered by inducing learners to restructure their mental representations.

Input-based instruction can be either exposure-based or response-based. If instruction is only exposure-based, learners are simply exposed to input that contains exemplars of the target structure. Response-based instruction requires learners to produce a response verifying their understanding of the target structure. The response can be either non-verbal or minimally verbal.

Exposure can be classified into enriched and enhanced input. Enriched input comprises an L2 target structure with high frequency. Enhanced input can, in addition, be more distinctive as the target structure is emphasised through glossing, bolding and underlining.

According to Ellis (2012, p. 286), input-based research should reveal to what extent input can trigger noticing and whether enriched and enhanced inputs are effective in comparison with other instructional approaches.

3.2.2.1 The role of input, output and interaction in L2 acquisition

Input

The theory of language input comes from the input hypothesis by Stephen Krashen (ibid), who claimed that input comprehensible for the learner is the only necessary condition for language learning if the learner can pay attention to it. This view was later supported by a number of studies. For instance, Swain (1985, in Mitchel and Myles, 2004) did research in which she observed the process of second language acquisition (French) in Canadian schools. Her experience led her to claim that comprehensible second language input can ensure overall interlanguage development.

Krashen defined his Input hypothesis as follows: "Humans acquire language in only one way – by understanding messages, or by receiving 'comprehensible input'. We move from *i*, our current level, to *i+1*, the next level along the natural order, by understanding input containing *i+1*." (Krashen, 1985)

Krashen also claims that speaking is not a cause of acquisition, but its result, and if there is enough comprehensible input, the necessary grammar is automatically provided. Krashen claims that input turns into intake if learners

i) understand i+1 form,
ii) are able to link it to a meaning (form-meaning mapping exists), and
iii) the i+1 form reappears with a minimal frequency.

According to Krashen (ibid), the entire process of acquisition can be realised incidentally, without any awareness.

Interaction

Further research tried to show that the influence of input can be increased by means of substantial interaction. Pica (1987, in Mitchell and Myles, 2004) showed that learners who had a chance to ask for clarifications when listening to a text were more successful on the following tasks than those who only heard the text. Thus, Mitchell and Myles (2004, p. 166) conclude that "interactional adjustments appear to be more effective in promoting comprehension of input than are linguistic adjustments alone."

Similar results were presented by Loschky (1994), who also proved that interaction about meaning aids second language comprehension. Groups of students who had a chance to ask for clarifications (unlike the other groups) reached better scores in comprehension tasks. But, by means of assigning pre- and post- tests, Loschky (ibid) also assessed progress in the use of relevant vocabulary and grammar forms (locative constructions in Japanese). His study failed to show any link between increased comprehension and acquisition. Similar research was conducted by Gass and Varonis (1994) who claim that interaction did not help learners to improve the quality or intelligibility of their second language output. But interaction simply resulted in the development of the learners' strategic competence. For instance, learners did not learn any new lexical items, but they learnt how to define them, using basic vocabulary.

Contradictory results were produced by Mackey's study (1999), who proved progress in the acquisition of question forms among learners of English as a second language. Some learners in his research were allowed to negotiate meaning with a native-speaker interlocutor, whereas the others were not. Progress in the correct form and use of questions was documented only in the group of interacting learners. The discrepancy between the results of the above-mentioned research was criticised, and led to the reformulation of interaction hypothesis stated by Long (1996, p. 414): "It is proposed that environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner's developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, during negotiation for meaning. Negative feedback obtained during negotiation work or elsewhere may be facilitative of L2 development, at least for vocabulary, morphology and language-specific syntax, and essential for learning certain specifiable L1-L2 contrasts."

Output

Swain also formulated the output hypothesis arguing that second language learners succeed in comprehending second language texts but cannot process them fully as they concentrate mainly on semantic processing. It is only second language production that can make students acquire grammatical processing and therefore develop L2 syntax and morphology. Thus, input and interaction hypotheses should be complemented by output hypotheses. The function of output was proposed by Swain (1995, in Mitchell and Myles, 2004):

- noticing/triggering function: learners become aware of gaps in their current second

language system

- hypothesis-testing function: learners are given opportunities to experiment with new structures and forms
- metalinguistic function: learners are provided with opportunities to reflect on, discuss and analyse the problems explicitly[42]

It is generally concluded that output is necessary to increase fluency and to support students' confidence and routine in using their interlanguage system. The research conducted by Ellis and He (1999) proved that students who were required to produce language forms (items of vocabulary) outperformed students who did a similar task but did not produce the desirable language forms.

Still, the same results were not achieved in the area of grammar. Regarding second language grammar, there is little evidence of benefits arising from making students produce second language output (Shehadeh, 2002). The results of the research conducted by Izumi and Bigelow (2000) prove that rich input enriched with a variety of noticing activities leads to grammar learning even without any requested student's production. Two control groups were given different kinds of texts including examples of the structures. One control group had to generate similar texts, the other focused on activities based on the texts but of different types (e.g., they answered comprehension questions). The two groups finally reached the same scores in the post-tests.

Research findings (enriched and enhanced inputs)

Trahey and White (1993, in Ellis 2012, p. 286) conducted research with French learners of L2 English. They exposed the learners to enriched input for 10 days. The input contained a large number the exemplars of the subject-adverb-verb word order. The study results showed that francophone learners were not able to acquire the correct word order and "unlearn" the French SVAO order. Enriched input-based instruction proved to be ineffective.

Similarly, Ellis et al. (2009) exposed adult learners of L2 English to enriched input, containing a lot of exemplars of the third person singular *–s*. The input contained 51 written instances and 23 aural instances of the target structure. The exposure took two one-hour lessons. Finally, both implicit and explicit knowledge was measured in tests, proving that no acquisition took place in either the short or long term.

Enhanced input is likely to be more effective. Jourdenais et al. (1995, in Ellis 2012, p. 286) investigated the use of preterite and imperfect forms by English speakers of L2

42 The study of output deserves more attention than the scope of this dissertation enables. Yet, data of students' output were collected and will be analysed in the next stage of the research.

Spanish. Two groups were exposed to texts with a large number of the target forms. One group studied only an enriched text, the other group read texts that were typographically highlighted. The learners who studied on the basis of enhanced input were more likely to use past tense forms more frequently and accurately in post-tests.

J. White (1998, in Ellis, 2012, p. 286) differentiates three grades of input enhancement:

- Input flood (enriched input)
- Typographically enhanced input (enhanced input)
- Typographically enhanced input flood with extensive listening and reading

White's comparison of the three enhancements showed that they were equally effective to facilitate the acquisition of possessive pronouns with French learners of L2 English.

Ellis et al. (2009) claim that the studies of enriched and enhanced input effects do not provide clear results. He asserts that the variable of the investigated target structure must be considered. Ellis (ibid) hypothesises that noticing instruction does not necessarily help learners due to the difficulty of the target structure. Thus, the effect of input will also depend on the structure itself.

3.2.2.2 Input-based instruction and explicit instruction

Ellis (2012, p. 287) presents studies that compared the effect of purely enriched or enhanced input and input supported by explicit instruction. Much research has shown that enriched input together with explicit instruction resulted in better acquisition with respect to some target structures (e.g., participial adjectives in L2 English) but failed to facilitate it with respect to others (e.g., the present passive in L2 English). Such results support the hypothesis that the effectiveness of various inputs and instructions can depend on the target structure.[43]

Besides the target structure, other variables appear to be significant. While speaking tasks did not reveal any differences between the effect of purely enriched input and the same input with explicit instruction and corrective feedback, written tasks revealed better results of the latter instruction. In addition, the differences depended on the timing of tests. Unlike immediate post-tests, delayed post-tests did not indicate any differences in effectiveness.

43 The goal of the dissertation is to show to what extent the input (enriched versus enhanced) and instruction (explicit versus implicit) can help learners acquire expressions of futurality in economic context effectively.

Studies comparing input-based versus explicit instruction also led to different conclusions. Ellis (2012, p. 288) presents research proving that indirect consciousness-raising instruction (explicit instruction) is equally effective with input-based instruction (structured input). On the contrary, other research results indicate an advantage for explicit instruction when direct consciousness-raising was compared with enriched and enhanced input.

Ellis (2012, p. 289) concludes upon the following hypotheses:

- Enriched input can make L2 learners acquire a new target structure, but it cannot restructure incorrect interlanguage representations. In addition, the improvements are only temporary and their effect can disappear unless more exposure is available.
- Enhanced input appears to promote noticing and to assist acquisition if it contains text highlighting of target structures.
- Enhanced input may fail to facilitate acquisition if the target structure is too complex.
- The combination of input-based and explicit instruction can be more effective but not in all cases.
- If the input-based instruction facilitates the form-meaning mapping of the target structure and makes its meaning clear, it can be as effective as explicit instruction. But input-based instruction appears to be less effective than explicit instruction followed by production practice.

On the basis of the conclusions, Ellis (2012, p. 289) postulates that "If the treatments that consisted of just input-based options are taken as involving implicit instruction, it is clear that such instruction can succeed in helping learners to acquire grammar – at least sometimes. Overall, the studies do not demonstrate that explicit instruction is superior to input-based instruction. However, they do suggest that input-based instruction may work better if it is accompanied by explicit instruction."

3.2.2.3 Production-based instruction

Unlike input-based instruction, production-based instruction is aimed at production practice. Ellis (2012, p. 289) distinguishes two kinds of the practice: text-manipulation and text-creation activities. Regarding this distinction, Ellis (ibid) formulates a few hypotheses:

- Text-manipulation will be less effective than text-production as it does not establish form-meaning connections.
- Text-creation activities establish form-meaning connections and facilitate communicative language which can be used outside the class through practice.
- Text-creation activities develop only some dimensions of communicative competence, namely fluency and general comprehension, but do not result in better accuracy or appropriate sociolinguistic parameters.

Text-manipulation is explored by comparative tests. The results of L2 learners who used a particular target structure in controlled teacher-led activities are compared with the results of L2 learners who had no such practice. In addition, the results of learners who used the target structure with different frequencies are compared.

A few studies (Ellis, 2012, p. 290) have shown that text-manipulation activities do not saturate acquisition. Even good students did not benefit from controlled manipulation practice. Ellis (ibid) suggests that too much mechanical practice based on manipulation may interfere with learning due to overlearning. Thus, text-manipulation that enables learners to produce target forms without making errors can be counter-productive.

The effectiveness of pure manipulation can be increased by means of an appropriate corrective feedback. Tomasello and Herron (1989, in Ellis, 2012, p. 290) elicited errors in manipulated production and corrected them. The results of the research revealed that such a manipulation leads to a more effective acquisitional process. However, Ellis (ibid) argues that the effect did not result from the manipulation itself but the correction. Ellis (ibid) claims that the correction "induced the learners to carry out a 'cognitive comparison' between their deviant utterance and the correct target-language utterances".

Text-creation appears to be more effective than text-manipulation. During text-creation instruction, L2 learners are engaged in creative tasks in which the target structure can be used purposefully. Not much research has been conducted to measure the effectiveness of the text-creation instruction itself. A number of the studies (Ellis, 2012) declared to research text-creation, but the instruction also involved explicit instruction and explicit corrective feedback. Thus, it is not possible to confirm the hypotheses of text-creation effectiveness. The complexity of the instruction stems from the fact that text-creation tasks can hardly elicit the intended linguistic features. The features are therefore either presented first and/or corrected afterwards to induce learners to use them. Ellis (2012, p. 294) concludes that text-creation activities can be assistive, but explicit instruction and feedback are necessary to trigger real acquisition. Otherwise, learners tend to avoid structures which they need not use or are not aware of. The effectiveness of text-creation is simply given by accompanying explicit instruction (direct or indirect consciousness-raising) and corrective feedback.

3.2.2.4 Input-based vs. production-based feedback

The effectiveness of input-based and production-based instructions are investigated through comparing enriched, enhanced and structured input with text-manipulation and text-creation.

Some above-mentioned research results have proved that the target structure is a significant research variable. Too complex structures can interfere with noticing. In addition, VanPatten (1996) hypothesised that learners have to pay attention to a number of different stimuli in the input and have to prioritise some structures over others because attention is always directed. According to VanPatten (1996, pp. 14 - 15), the teacher can affect the ways in which learners attend to input data. He refers to this approach as "processing instruction" and postulates processing principles:

- Learners process input for meaning before they process it for form.
- Learners process content words in the input before anything else.
- Learners prefer processing lexical items to grammatical items (e.g., morphological markers) for semantic information.
- Learners prefer processing "more meaningful" morphology before "less meaningful morphology" (e.g., lexical rather than grammatical morphemes).
- If learners are to process form that is not meaningful, they must be able to process informational and communicative content at no (or little) cost to attention.

Thus, VanPatten (ibid) presumes that effective instruction must accentuate form-meaning mappings. This contradicts the natural way of input processing as well as production practice based on text-manipulation. VanPatten (ibid) researched learners of Spanish at university level who were provided with input instruction in accordance with his principles. The instruction accentuated word order rules and use of clictic pronouns. Learners who received the "processing instruction" scored better, even in comprehension tests, than learners who received production training. VanPatten (ibid) claims that explicit instruction is not the most significant element of "processing instruction". He researched three groups of learners who were provided with three different instructions:

- explicit information about the target structure followed by structured-input activities
- only explicit information
- just completion of structured-input activities

The scores differed with respect to the test-type. In comprehension tests, the first and the third instruction were found more effective than the second (only explicit information). But in production tests, the first instruction was the most effective.

A disputable hypothesis was posed by Fernandez (2008). He compared the results of structured input with and without explicit instruction. The examined group comprised L2 Spanish learners at college. The target features investigated were the Spanish word order and subjunctive. Fernandez proved that explicit information provided together with input led to faster progress in terms of the subjunctive mood but not with the word order. Regarding the word order, the results of implicit and explicit instructions were the same. Thus, Fernandez hypothesises "...not all structures are the same, and the interaction of explicit instruction, structure and processing a problem may yield different results in different studies." (Fernandez, 2008, p. 573)

Ellis (2012, p. 296) concludes that if we consider processing time, explicit instruction might increase the effects of structured input, but the effectiveness depends on the structures. Due to the contradictions of the above research, Ellis (ibid) states that "... there is still no convincing evidence that input-processing instruction is effective (or more effective than input-processing instruction) in developing the implicit knowledge needed for oral communication." Ellis (ibid) also assumes that production-based instruction results in better scores in production tests and input-based strategies are more dependent on target structures. Thus, some structures can be inappropriate to be acquired through input-based instruction. As Ellis claims "Input-processing instruction continues to attract the attention of researchers." (Ellis, 2012, p. 297)

If implicit instruction is to be unintentional primarily, Ellis (ibid) recommends that the structures are not apparent to learners. This involves the use of masking strategies such as primary focus on vocabulary when processing the input.

Similarly, there are differences between the effectiveness of production-based and comprehension-based instruction in terms of grammar and vocabulary. Production-based instruction led to higher levels of acquisition. The variables of explicitness, productive/receptive measurement, and immediate/delayed post-testing were irrelevant. It thus appears that different instructions can result in different levels of acquisition within different aspects of language (namely grammar and vocabulary).

As has been claimed above, effective acquisition takes place if the form-meaning mapping is saturated to a great extent, whether conveyed by input- or production-based instruction. It is likely that the instruction requiring more attention paid to form-meaning mapping will be more effective. Still, Ellis (2012, p. 298) states that this assumption is not so definite and depends more on the language area to develop. "There is evidence that input-based instruction may be more effective in the case of grammar but production-based

instruction is more effective in the case of vocabulary." Hence, both input-based and production-based instructions can foster acquisition if they show learners how form and meaning map onto each other.

3.2.3 Some outstanding issues of instruction effects and measurement

Ellis (2012, p. 298) admits that research has not provided clear data yet, and any generalisations could be premature. Several variables have been identified that can affect research results significantly.

3.2.3.1 Durability

If any study of instruction effectiveness is to be valid, the effects of instruction should be durable. Post-tests should therefore not only be immediate but also delayed. Ellis (ibid) reports that results of numerous studies showed considerable progress in both immediate and delayed post-tests. Some studies proved only an insignificant decrease, but others showed effects of instruction atrophy over time.

Ellis hypothesises that form-focused instruction is ineffective in terms of durability if it is not embedded in communicative activities. After the instruction is over, students must be exposed to the target feature to facilitate appropriate communicative needs.

Durability can also be affected by the target feature itself. Some features seem to be less salient than others. It appears that even features that are frequent in the input need not be salient enough to ensure durability. Frequency and durability appear to be independent variables. The communicative need can have a negative effect if learners are so motivated by the need that the target feature is not apparent. This can happen if the target feature is not important in meeting the communicative goal. In addition, instructional efficiency can decrease if learners are provided without a subsequent instruction of another feature which can interfere with the feature researched. Learners may not be able to assort the two structures in their interlanguage system.

Ellis (ibid) asserts that the effects of instruction can be delayed. It has been proved that explicit corrective feedback has no immediate effect on the acquisition of the past form in English, but it emerges in a delayed post-test. These findings correspond to the theory of emergence (Larsen-Freeman, 2008). Ellis (ibid) thus recommends that valid instructional research should always involve a delayed post-test.

3.2.3.2 Instructional target

Another variable that can affect instructional efficiency is learnability. Some structures appear to be easier to learn. Spada and Tomita (2010) claim that learning features in paradigmatic relations is more difficult. Grammatical features can therefore be differentiated according to their learnability into more or less learnable. In addition, it also depends on the learner's developmental stage. The learner's interlanguage system need not be ready to acquire a new feature. Thus, one structure can be more or less learnable with respect to the development.

Spada and Tomita (2010, p. 273) propose the following learnability classification of grammar structures in English:

Simple features

- tense[44]
- articles
- plurals
- prepositions
- subject-verb inversion
- possessive determiners
- participial adjectives

Complex features

- dative alternation
- question formation
- relativisation
- passives
- pseudo-cleft sentences

The complexity is given by the number of transformation rules involved in the process of the structure formation. When instructional type was tested with respect to complexity and learnability, explicit instruction was found effective for both simple and complex structures. The more complex structure, the more effective the explicit instruction seems to be. Implicit instruction was also effective but less than explicit.[45] Hence, Spada and Tomita (ibid) contradict Ellis (ibid) and assert that the type of language feature does not interact with the type of instruction. Still, Ellis (ibid) conducted research measuring the effect of two different feedbacks on two different structures (past simple and comparative forms). While one feedback had no impact on either of the forms, the other's efficiency differed according to the structure.

44 The phenomenon of temporality and futurality is likely to be a learnability category.
45 It is likely that both implicit and explicit instruction will be effective with respect to futural structures.

Ellis (ibid) claims that more variables interact in the research and influence efficiency results. For instance, the nature of L1 can be a significant aspect. If there are no articles in L1 unlike L2, this grammatical feature can be more complex for L2 learners.

3.2.3.3 Measuring the effects of instruction

Ellis (2012, p. 301) declares that there is no measure of explicit and implicit knowledge. The measurement of the type of knowledge is not as essential for language pedagogy as the target of L2 learning is in developing implicit knowledge. Explicit knowledge is facilitative if it is fully proceduralised and can thus assist the development of implicit knowledge.

To measure the degree of acquisition, Ellis (ibid) provides a list of measurement tools:

- metalinguistic judgements
- selected responses
- constrained-constructed responses
- free-constructed responses

Free-constructed responses can fail to assess acquisition as it is not easy to make learners use the target features. In addition, learners tend to avoid structures that are out of their control. Tests based on free-constructed responses can therefore lack in validity and reliability.[46]

Ellis (ibid) states that much more research will be needed to develop tools for measuring implicit knowledge. In any case, grammatical tests measuring the level of implicit knowledge must be timed not to allow testees time to think profoundly about the language to be used. The impact of explicit knowledge will therefore be reduced. In addition, response times to the input stimuli might be valuable.

If research results are to be interpreted correctly, we need to know how instruction is implemented. A detailed analysis of the experimental lesson and the classroom interaction must be included. Instruction is a complex phenomenon, and the context in which it occurs can vary extremely. Without a detailed description of the instructional process, it is difficult to compare results across studies.

Studies investigating the levels of explicitness and implicitness in language education provide the following generalisations (Ellis, 2012, p. 303):

46 In our research, we will avoid using free-constructed responses.

- Effective instruction facilitates the connection between a linguistic form, i.e., its lexical, grammatical and pragmalinguistic aspects, and their ideational and interpersonal meanings.
- Instruction should primarily focus on structures that are problematic for learners to be taught. Research has proved that some grammatical features can be acquired incidentally. Therefore, it can help to identify structures and features that need instruction. Instruction oriented at such critical features increases efficiency of the whole educational process.
- Instruction is effective if it reflects the developmental stage of the feature. It is ineffective if instruction is to trigger development of a completely new feature when the learner is not developmentally ready to acquire it.
- Instruction is more effective if text-creation activities are included.
- Both implicit and explicit instructions are effective, i.e., they result in added value in language education. Explicit instruction appears to be more effective as it assists the development of both implicit and explicit L2 knowledge. In the long-term perspective, learners can achieve greater accuracy.
- Indirect consciousness-raising tasks that help learners to discover facts about the L2 target feature are effective.
- L2 learners do not need to produce a grammatical structure to acquire it. Input-based instruction can be supportive as it saturates the contextualisation of new features.
- Explicit consciousness-raising instruction increases the effect of both input- and output-based instruction.
- Output-based instruction is more effective if it involves corrective feedback.
- Text-manipulation instruction is not as effective as text-creation activities. Mechanical practice can be part of the instructional process, but learners definitely need to use L2 features in real (creative) conditions.
- The effect of instruction can be both immediate and delayed.

4 PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE AND ITS DEVELOPMENT

4.1 SYSTEMS OF COMPETENCES

There exist a number of various models of competences that play a significant role in the process of language acquisition. The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics (1994, p. 3743) distinguishes competence as a speaker's knowledge of language, and performance as the ability of language production and comprehension.

Choděra (2006, p. 55) defines four different types of competence according to what targets the competences fulfil with respect to a text:

- **Linguistic competence** comprises metalinguistic knowledge a language and its metalinguistic interpretation. It is knowledge *about* language.
- **Language competence** is knowledge that arises *from* language, i.e., the direct link between signified and signifying.
- **Speech competence** constitutes the ability to produce and comprehend a text in compliance with the norm of a language.
- **Communicative competence** comprises the ability to produce and comprehend a text with respect not only to the system and the norm of a language but also to the use in particular communicative situations. This competence emphasises verbal as well as non-verbal communication, intercultural sensitivity and tolerance, sociocultural, sociolinguistic, extralinguistic and paralinguistic factors.

Most theoreticians cover both competence and performance under the term *communicative competence* as a result of language acquisition. Communicative competence thus comprises a number of other competences describing a language learner's knowledge and skills.

One of the most detailed classifications of communicative competence is given by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. This document distinguishes general competences that constitute prerequisites for any learning (not only language acquisition).

General competences include declarative knowledge (such as knowledge of the world, sociocultural knowledge and intercultural awareness), skills and know-how (practical skills, intercultural skills), existential competence, ability to learn (language and communication awareness, general phonetic awareness, and study and heuristic skills).

Communicative competence is more language-related. It comprises three different competences: linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence and pragmatic competence. Each competence is defined by means of descriptors on six levels (A1, A2,

B1, B2, C1 and C2 being the most proficient level of language command). According to the Czech educational curriculum, students are to achieve B2 level in English as a second language after graduation from higher secondary schools (defined by the document *Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia* and *Katalog požadavků k maturitní zkoušce z anglického jazyka – vyšší úroveň*). Afterwards, students continue studying English to achieve C1 level at the end of bachelor study programmes (defined by the document *Národní plán výuky cizích jazyků*). In addition, bachelor students deal with English for specific purposes with respect to their study specialisations.

Linguistic competence comprises linguistic, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic competences. The general descriptor of level C1 says that the learner/user *"can select an appropriate formulation from a broad range of language to express him/herself clearly, without having to restrict what he/she wants to say." (p. 110)*

Grammatical competence is defined as the knowledge of and the ability to use grammatical means (resources) of a language to express various ideas clearly. The level of grammatical competence is described mainly as grammatical accuracy:
The learner/user "*consistently maintains a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare and difficult to spot.*" (p. 114)

According to the Framework, pragmatic competence concerns the learner's knowledge of how texts are structured and organised (discourse competence), how communicative functions are used appropriately in various contexts (functional competence) and how messages are sequenced according to interactional and transactional schemata (design competence)[47]. While discourse competence defines the ability to manage discourse in terms of style and register, it is functional competence that *"is concerned with the use of spoken discourse and written texts in communication for particular functional purposes"* (p. 125).[48]

Functional purposes are expressed by means of microfunctions and macrofunctions. More specifically, *"microfunctions are categories for the functional use of single (usually short) utterances, usually as turns in an interaction."* (p. 125) The framework distinguishes the following microfunctions:

- imparting and seeking factual information:
    - identifying

47 The appropriate use of futural constructions reflects the developmental level of discourse, functional and design competences.
48 Among other things, the goal of the dissertation is to measure the functional competence of university undergraduates in terms of the use of futural expressions.

    - reporting
    - correcting
    - asking
    - answering
- expressing and finding out attitudes:
    - factual (agreement/disagreement)
    - knowledge (knowledge/ignorance, remembering, forgetting, probability, certainty)
    - modality (obligations, necessity, ability, permission)
    - volition (wants, desires, intentions, preference)
    - emotions (pleasure/displeasure, likes/dislikes, satisfaction, interest, surprise, hope, disappointment, fear, worry, gratitude)
    - moral (apologies, approval, regret, sympathy)
- suasion:
    - suggestions, requests, warnings, advice, encouragement, asking help, invitations, offers
- socialising:
    - attracting attention, addressing, greetings, introductions, toasting, leave-taking
- structuring discourse:
    - (28 microfunctions, opening, turn-taking, closing, etc.)
- communication repair
    - (16 microfunctions)

Macrofuntions are higher text units categorised according to their functional use, i.e., a spoken discourse or a written text consisting of a sequence of sentences. The Framework gives a number of examples:

- description
- narration
- commentary
- exposition
- exegesis
- explanation
- demonstration
- instruction
- argumentation
- persuasion

It is difficult to find descriptors to assess the level of pragmatic competence. The Framework (p. 128) claims: *"It is not feasible to develop illustrative scales for all the areas of competence implied when one talks of functional ability. Certain microfunctional activities are in fact scaled in the illustrative scales for interactive and productive communicative activities. Two generic qualitative factors which determine the functional success of the learner/user are:* ***a) fluency****, the ability to articulate, to keep going, and to cope when one lands in a dead end* ***b) propositional precision****, the ability to formulate*

thoughts and propositions so as to make one's meaning clear." At level C1, the descriptors are as follows:

The learner/user

- *"can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language."* (spoken fluency)
- *"can qualify opinions and statements precisely in relation to degrees of, for example, certainty/uncertainty, belief/doubt, likelihood, etc."* (propositional precision)[49]

Hedge (2000, p. 44) uses the term communicative language ability for communicative competence. The ability to communicate effectively is required by both adult L2 learners who need to communicate in spoken and written language (English) and schoolchildren who are aware of future needs for international communication and mobility. Hedge (ibid) emphasises that the ability refers to both spoken and written modes as well as to productive and receptive skills. None of these concepts can be omitted if communication is to be effective.

Hymes (1972, p. 278), who introduced the concept of communicative competence, claims that communicative refers to the fact that rules of grammar (competence) would be useless without rules of use. "Just as rules of syntax can control aspects of phonology, and just as rules of semantics can control aspects of syntax, so rules of speech acts enter as a controlling factor for linguistic form as a whole." Hedge (2000, p. 46) asserts that the development of the communicative approach came along with the development of English for specific purposes (ESP). Explicit professional and academic needs of ESP forced designers to find methods of analysing real-world tasks to identify specific communicative demands. At the same time, structural syllabi we replaced by situational and functional syllabi.

In comparison with CEF, Hedge (2000, p. 46) adopted another concept of communicative competence consisting of five particular competences: linguistic competence, pragmatic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence and fluency. As the goal of the dissertation is to explore the pragmatic competence of university undergraduates with respect to futural constructions, we will predominantly focus on the pragmatic constituent.

49 Thus, university undergraduates are expected to achieve a fairly advanced level of pragmatic competence in terms of propositional precision.

Pragmatic competence defines and delimits the ability to use language to achieve certain communicative goals and intentions.[50] Among other things, it requires learners to be able to differentiate the various illocutionary forces of their utterances. Hedge (2000, p. 48) claims that modern L2 instruction is to provide learners with realistic presentations of language in use and its communicative intentions. Thus, the presentation should always cover the context of use. Contextualisation of forms results in the presentation of functions of particular grammar items that they fulfil in the context. It is an element of pragmatic competence to know how to perform a particular function or express an intention clearly.

But Hedge (2000, p. 49) asserts that "spoken or written messages must also be appropriate to the social context in which they are produced. Learners need to know the appropriate social conventions." Therefore, even though various functions (such as futurality) can be expressed by a number of language forms (exponents), the forms need not be appropriate with respect to the social context (e.g., level of formality, level of politeness). The choice of appropriate exponents depends on the setting, the status of speakers, their roles and relationships. Hedge (2000, p. 49) calls such parameters stylistic features and requires that they be included and elaborated upon by L2 textbooks so that learners become aware of the relationship between language and the context of its use. Pragmatic competence as a constituent of communicative competence is knowing what is inappropriate, what is incongruous and what might cause offence.

4.2 PRAGMATIC/FUNCTIONAL COMPETENCE

While linguistic competence was a predominant paradigm behind a number of SLA/FLL theories in the past (e.g., grammar-translation method), other competences were later found to be equally important. Thus, learner language was not seen as a defective variety of the target language or a mixture of first and second language any more.

4.2.1 Concepts of pragmatic competence

The pragmatics revolution in linguistics was observed and reflected by second language learning theories as well: "Rather than making the formal linguistic system their starting point, (these) researchers are centrally concerned with the ways in which second

50 It is therefore sometimes referred to as illocutionary competence.

language learners set about making meaning, and achieving their personal communicative goals. They argue that the great variety of interlanguage forms produced by second language learners cannot be sensibly interpreted unless we pay attention also to the speech acts that learners are seeking to perform, and to the ways they exploit the immediate social, physical and discourse context to help them make meaning." (Mitchel and Myles, p.131)

In addition, it is believed that these efforts to make and derive meaning on the basis of how context can help second language development.[51] Hereinafter, together with how we have framed pragmatic and functional competence, the word functional will be interpreted on the basis of the following definition: "Functionalism in linguistics is the explication and explanation of grammatical structure in which semantic and pragmatic constructs are integral." (Rispoli, 1999, p.222, in Mitchel and Myles, 2004)

The functionalist approach integrates a number of orientations or perspectives that can enable us to describe the relationship between form and function (Mitchel and Myles, p.133):

- Cognitive perspective is based on the fact that people simply construct the relationship between a form and a function to reflect their own view of the world.
- Textual perspective explains and describes the extent *"to which particular linguistic* devices are employed to help organise stretches of discourse both intrasententially and across broader stretches of a text."
- Social perspective explains the relationships between the development of a formal language system and aspects of the social world (e.g., speech acts that one performs and their grammatical and lexical choices, or the influence of speech events on one's linguistic development).
- Multifunctional perspective pays attention to the relations between grammatical development and prototype events; between grammar, pragmatics and text orientation; and between grammar and the social world. Mitchel&Myles (2004) cite the work of Budwig (1995), who studied the use of the forms *will* and *gonna* by three-year-old children, and argues that they are used in different discourse contexts, to express different speech acts: "Gonna appears in discourse in which the children were planning and organising; it implies a more distant intention to act in a particular way. In contrast, will appears in the context of ongoing cooperative peer play, and refers to an immediate intentional stance."

Budwig also summarises the possible factors that might make learners reorganise their systems of form-function relationships continually:

- linguistic maturation
- cognitive development
- encounters with target input
- communicative need

51 English for Specific Purposes as a considerably contextualised discipline of L2 learning theory and practice can contribute to the development of pragmatic competence considerably.

In addition, Givón (1979) distinguished various 'modes of expression', arguing that both informal speech and learner speech (in terms of their first or second language) convey meaning through context (heavy reliance on context – pragmatic mode), but more formal styles of language rely on explicit language coding (reduced reliance on context – syntactic mode). Givón (ibid) interprets the modes of expression as a continuum, pragmatic and syntactic modes being the ends of it. He believes that language acquisition, change and variation can be interpreted in terms of movement along the continuum.

Givón (ibid) describes the difference between pragmatic and syntactic modes of expression in the following table:

Pragmatic mode	**Syntactic mode**
topic-comment structure	subject predicate structure
loose conjunction	tight subordination
slow rate of delivery	fast rate of delivery
one-to-one ratio of verbs to nouns	a larger ratio of nouns
semantically simple verbs	semantically complex verbs
low use of grammatical morphology	elaborate use of morphology[52]

4.2.2 Form-to-function vs. function-to-form analysis

Studies in language acquisition can be divided into two groups on the basis of the research process direction. Thus, Mitchell and Myles (ibid) distinguish

- form-to-function analysis and
- function-to-form analysis,

stating that in both approaches function and form is definitely influenced and, to some extent, also limited by the structure of discourse. To support this view, Mitchell and Myles (ibid) quote Huebner (1983): "… the rules governing various aspects of the interlanguage grammar were influenced by the structure of discourse."

Mitchell and Myles (ibid) add that variability in one's interlanguage "is caused by gradual, systematic shifts in function for particular forms, which may include apparent 'backtracking' away from target language norms." In addition, interlanguage development must be studied from more than one level of language to be interpreted correctly. The

52 The professional economic context (written texts) will be situated somewhere towards the syntactic mode.

analyses can start at the level of discourse or pragmatics leading to an examination of syntax and morphology.

Early functionalist or textual tradition was criticised by Sato (1990) who argues that "analysis has not gone very much beyond sentence-based, NP-focused quantification, where syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic dimensions have been inappropriately conflated." Sato (ibid) proposes that research in SLA should focus on a learner's interlanguage move from parataxis (counterpart of Givón's pragmatic mode of expression) to syntacticisation (Givón's syntactic mode). Mitchell and Myles (2004, p. 141) define the concepts of parataxis and syntacticisation like this:

The stage of parataxis:

- extensive reliance on discourse-pragmatic factors:
- shared knowledge between interlocutors
- collaboration between interlocutors in the expression of propositions
- distribution of propositional content over a sequence of utterances rather than a single utterance

The stage of syntacticisation:

- the use of morphosyntactic devices in interlanguage increases over time
- reliance on discourse-pragmatic context declines

Sato (1990) demonstrates the function-to-form approach in research of the past time reference of two brothers (in their early teens) who received no special English as a second language instruction in their foster family. The research was conducted over a period of 10 months during which Sato explored the degree and development of parataxis and the syntacticisation of the two boys' language means used to express past time reference (function). Sato (ibid) found all the means and then examined the linguistic encoding of semantic propositions (form). Sato found that there was little development from a paratactic mode of expression in the direction of syntax over 10 months, and, thus came to the conclusion that inflected past-tense verb forms are slow to develop for naturalistic learners. Sato (ibid) gives an explanation that there was little communicative pressure making the boys use the correct forms to express the particular functions, and formal instruction could make a greater difference to the rate of acquisition.[53] Sato (ibid) finally concludes that conversational interaction need not be a driver for syntactic development

53 It can thus be deduced that an instructional approach might result in better progress.

because communication problems can routinely be solved through discourse-pragmatic means.[54]

Another project that dealt with the functional approach was the European Science Foundation Project. Its aim was to explain and describe the features of a native speaker – non-native speaker communication. As a result, internal and external factors affecting the rate and degree of success of acquisition were to be identified. The proponents of the project defend a functional approach arguing that "only a broad pragmatic approach can capture the changing means used by the learner to express notions such as temporality." (Mitchell and Myles, 2004, p. 146) In addition, they attempt to provide a complete, contextualised account for encoding time reference (namely tense and aspect). The European Science Foundation Team claim that there is a range of competing constraints – pragmatic, semantic and phrasal under which learner utterances are produced. According to the theoreticians, temporality is inferred from context. Two possible factors are claimed to be significant: the subjective need to sound and to be like the social environment, and concrete communicative needs. At the same time, they claim that the importance of input, context and social environment appears to be even more important than the communicative needs: "Our observations about development beyond the basic variety clearly indicate that the first factor (the subjective need to sound and be like the social environment) outweighs the other factor (the concrete communicative needs). Learners try to imitate the input, irrespective of what the forms they use really mean, and it is only a slow and gradual adaptation process which eventually leads them to express by these words and constructions what they mean to express in the target language." (Klein et al., 1993, p.112)

On the other hand, they also prioritise communicative needs in discourse stating that "acquisition is pushed by the communicative tasks of the discourse activities that the learner takes part in." (Perdue and Klein, 1993, p.262). The shift from pragmatic and lexical modes of expression towards grammaticalisation is activated by a learner's long term need to economise and to stabilise the expressibility in the basic communicative functions. According to Mitchell and Myles (2004, p. 151), the role of instruction is not so important.

Another study dealing with the acquisition of temporality was introduced by Bardovi-Harlig (2000) who describes three successive stages:

- pragmatic stage: expressing time by scaffolding by interlocutors, inferring from the

54 It can be hypothesised that the overall communicative orientation of language instruction can also deteriorate the quality of the syntacticisation of the expressions of futurality.

context, contrasting events and observing chronological order
- lexical stage: expressing time by recognising temporal and locative adverbials and connectives
- morphological stage: learners start to use verb morphology (tense and aspect) as indicators of temporality

Proceeding along the three stages is called emergence of morphology and, according to Mitchell and Myles (p. 152), emergence does not necessarily mean that the forms are used accurately. Form therefore precedes function, so various forms can be used productively, but no contrast can be seen in meaning or in function with other forms used at the same time. In addition, Bardovi-Harlig (ibid) claims that tense and aspect morphology emerges in sequences, regardless of learners' first language background.

Another view of tense acquisition was proposed by the aspect hypothesis (Mitchell and Myles, 2004). It is based on the fact that verbs can be classified into groups expressing a different level of lexical (semantic) aspect. Salaberry (1999) grouped verbs into four types:

- stative verbs (have, want, be)
- activity verbs (run, walk, breathe)
- accomplishments (write, build)
- achievements (notice, realise, reach)

The aspect hypothesis claims that second language learners are influenced by the inherent semantic aspect of predicates in the acquisition of tense and aspect markers associated with the different classes of verbs. Salaberry (1999) gives an example of Spanish students who marked accomplishment and achievement verbs as preterite rather than imperfective. Only the most advanced students used verb tense more flexibly, reflecting the real speaker's viewpoint.

Functionalist tradition based its research goals and strategies on the presupposition that "language development is driven by pragmatic communicative needs, and that the formal resources of language are elaborated in order to express more complex patterns of meaning." (Mitchell and Myles, 2004, p. 154) Yet, many above-cited researchers proved that form precedes function (e.g., aspect hypothesis), that is, that "morphological forms appear in interlanguage ahead of any recognisable functional contrast in their use." (Mitchell and Myles, 2004, p. 155) The formal system thus proves to have its autonomous position in L2 acquisition.

Functionalism revealed the wide range of devices (lexical, grammatical, formal) that are used to convey meaning by L2 learners whose interlanguage is at an early acquisition stage (that is when all the devices are still underdeveloped). Much research has

not been done in later stages of L2 acquisition (advanced students). In addition, further research should demonstrate to what extent the communicative need drives the process of syntacticisation and, thus, promotes syntactic development, because some researchers have observed (Bordovi-Harlig, 2000) that instructed learners make more progress with, for example, acquisition of tense and aspect.[55] It is therefore hypothesised that formal instruction (especially in terms of syntactic development) appears to be more powerful than communicative needs. These findings are in contradiction with functionalist perspectives as it is not obvious why classroom learners should be more successful than uninstructed learners, as classroom communicative needs are reduced and indirect. Mitchell and Myles (2004) therefore state that "it is possible that classroom discourse forces second language learners to attend to the communicative value of formal items such as tense and aspect morphology, which are non-salient or communicatively redundant in everyday discourse. But this idea has not been followed up systematically by any of the research groups."

Functionalist research focused primarily on the analysis of learner's interlanguage output. Little attention has been paid to input and interaction. Further research should therefore be based on a deep analysis of input and its function in the process of acquisition.[56]

55 We hypothesise that syntacticisation can be achieved better by instructional L2 acquisition which is explicit rather than implicit. If the explicit instruction is more effective, then the instructional approach will also be more effective than the intuitive (natural) approach.

56 The effect of enriched and enhanced inputs to develop pragmatic competence in terms of futurality will be assessed in the dissertation (see Chapter 10, Appendix 7 and Appendix 8).

5 TEMPORALITY, FUTURALITY AND EXPRESSIONS OF FUTURALITY

5.1 CONCEPTS OF TEMPORALITY, MODELS OF TENSE SYMBOLISATION AND INTERPRETATION

There have been numerous attempts to establish a universal system or model for tense interpretation that would describe various tenses symbolically and explain their differences in a unique and unambiguous way. Berglund (2005, p. 33) calls such temporal modelling as tense symbolisation. Two tense symbolisations are widely recognised: Reichenbach's and

Close's models.

- Reichenbach (1947) determines the temporal location of a proposition (in Haegeman, 1989, p. 296): the moment of speech, the time of the event, and the reference point.
- Close (1964) introduces the notion of "the speaker's primary point of concern". The temporal location is given by the present moment and time in the future. The speaker's point of concern is in relation to either the present moment or some time in the future.[57]

5.1.1 Reichenbach's model

One of the systems was proposed by Reichenbach (1947). The system is based on semantic analysis. Haegeman and Berglund use the system to demonstrate the differences between *will* and *be going to*.

Reichenbach distinguishes lexical and grammatical means of temporality. Tense is a grammatical category locating an event or situation in time. It has two aspects: morphological (the morphology of verbs) and semantic (temporal location of the event).

Besides tense, which Reichenbach (ibid) declares to be either past or non-past, the meaning/function of tense is a result of other categories, namely aspect and modality.
Hackman interprets Reichenbach's system on the basis of Chomsky's phrase-structure of the verbal group:

- Verb phrase (VP): Verb (V) + noun phrase (NP)

57 Time of speech and present moment are not well-chosen terms. First, time of speech does not necessarily refer to the present moment. Second, present moment is a relative term with respect to the historical (chronological) time.

- Verb: auxiliary + V
- V: main verb (e.g., *take, give, break*)
- Aux: C (conjugated form) or M (modal verb) (have + en)(be + ing)
- M: *will, can, may, shall, must*

Together with Reichenbach, Hackmack (2013) considers a tense as C. Futurality is conveyed by means of modality (i.e., by means of modal *will* and *shall*). Unlike aspect, tense is claimed to have a relational character. Let us consider the following instances: *I read a book. I was reading a book when Phil called.* The event *(reading a book)* is relative to the moment the sentence is uttered. The second sentence makes it possible to locate the second event (*Phil's calling*) within the frame of the first event.[58]

Similarly to aspect, modality can also convey a temporal meaning. Thus, it can be difficult to distinguish modality and temporality: *John will be in the garden* (futurality, epistemic or deontic modality), and *This'll be the book you're looking for* (epistemic modality). The modal-temporal character of futurality is given by the fact that future events have not been realised at the time of utterance. Their realisation cannot be verified. Therefore, they are more or less likely to happen (epistemic meaning). Similarly, the willingness and intention of the agents can only be anticipated.

Reichenbach's system is used to show that there is no one-to-one mapping between a tense and a meaning (function). One tense can convey more meanings in different contexts and vice versa.

As mentioned above, Reichenbach (ibid) delimits the fundamental function of a tense as a location of an event in time. The tense either denotes a point or a time span that is related to the time of utterance. Therefore, tense is defined as a deictic category determining temporal relations with reference to the time of the act of speech.

Reichenbach (ibid) differentiated three significant aspects or components determining the temporal location of a proposition: S – the moment of speech, E – the time of the event and R – the reference point. Succession of the constituents is marked by a dash (-). If two constituents are simultaneous or one is included in another, their relation is denoted by a comma. Futurality can then be represented by the following pattern (the event will take place after the point of speech):

S – E: *John will leave London on Monday.*
John is leaving London on Monday.

58 Reichenbach (ibid) differentiates the time of event and the time of utterance as constitutive factors of a tense. It is also obvious that he interprets two events in terms of the mutual relationships of their frames. We adopt this approach in our framework temporal symbolisation (see Chapter 6).

John leaves London on Monday.

Besides strictly temporal meaning, tenses convey other meanings with other kinds of information. It is often not the narrow temporal meaning that differentiates the various tenses (such as *will leave, is leaving, leaves*) but the additional meanings. Reichanbach's patterns thus seem to be insufficient descriptors of tenses.[59] For instance, the order of *S* and *E* does not suffice for the representations of the various meanings of tenses. The reference point R is a kind of "hinge" in the system[60]. Using the *R* element, Reichenbach (ibid) defines three temporal levels:

Present:	S,R
Past:	R – S
Future:	S – R

The relation of E and R then provides another dimension to a tense:

Simultaneity:	E,R
Anteriority:	E – R
Posteriority:	R - E

Reichenbach (ibid) then proposes that *will* future is ambivalent between two interpretations:

S, R - E: *Now I shall go.*
S - R, E: *I shall go tomorrow.*

The future perfect tense can then be represented by three different patterns:

E – S – R: *He will have finished the homework by Friday.* (not finished yet)
S – E –R: *I will have done my homework by Friday*. (not started yet)
E,S – R: *I will have been living here for 25 years next month.*

Rechenbach (ibid) attempts to explain the difference between *Now I shall go* (posterior present) and *I shall go tomorrow* (simultaneous future) as follows:

S,R – E: *Now I shall go.*
S – E,R: *I shall go tomorrow.*

It is apparent that Reichenbach (ibid) considers the adverbials *now* and *tomorrow* as equal in terms of their deictic (temporal) function. According to Reichenbach (ibid), time

59 Below, we define the additional meanings as the framework of reference (see Chapter 6).
60 The necessity to establish other reference points besides the moment of speech is accentuated by Hoffmannová (1983, p. 62). She claims that the multiple anchoring of an utterance through a few reference points enables to differentiate perspectives and appraising views of all communicants.

adverbs are only able to identify the position of R. But Haegeman (ibid) shows that present and future time adverbs can occur simultaneously in a sentence with *will*[61]: *Now we'll have no money at the end of the month.* The *be going to* construction can co-occur with the same adverbial specifications: *Now I'm going to go, I'm going to go tomorrow* and *Now, I'm going to have no money at the end of the month.*

Reichenbach (ibid) himself does not consider these uses of *be going to*. His interpretation of the construction is limited to posterior futurate. As the same future adverbials are used, Reichenbach's representation of the three instances of *going to* will be the same as with *will*, i.e., S, R - E or S - R, E. [62]

61 In our opinion, the discrepancy results from the linearity of Reichenbach's temporal system. *Now* and *at the end of the month* do not have the same function. While *now* refers to some present evidence (not a reference point), *at the end of the month* is a real reference point of the event. Temporality appears to be a hierarchical rather than linear system. Apparently, the sentence *Now I shall go* does not say that *I am going now* or that *I am on the point of leaving. Now* refers to the fact that there is evidence at present that *it is high time to go*. Regarding our systems of temporal frameworks, the sentences can be represented in the following way (see Chapter 6):

Now I shall go. Now is marked on the level of the framework of reference as a present pre-indication.

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Present
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

I shall go tomorrow. No pre-indication is marked.

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

Now I will have no money at the end of the month. Now is marked on the level of the framework of reference. *At the end of the month* specifies the time of performance (realisation level) and delimits the length of orientation (reference level).

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Present
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

62 The difference between *Now I shall go* and *Now I'm going to go* is in the quality of the present evidence. While *going to* is an expression of the agent's will and the present evidence is demonstrated by the agent's intention (their obvious decision), *shall* suggests that there is some appropriateness at the moment to leave and the present evidence is demonstrated by the agent's commitment. In both the instances, *now* is a deictic expression denoting the pre-indication (evidence at present).

If we consider and implement the quality of *going to* that most scholars mention, i.e., the present orientation, then the sentences *I'm going to see John* and *I shall see John* can be represented as follows: S,R-E in the case of *be going to* and S-R,E in the case of *will*.[63] The future orientation of *will* can thus be seen as a function of the position of the reference point R. For *will*, it is related to the time of event (E). But it is disputable what the position of R is in the case *will* occurs with *now*. Reichenbach's proposal appears to be inadequate or incomplete at differentiating the various uses of the constructions of futurality.

According to Reichenbach (ibid), it is the present participle that is used to the event covering a time span. He refers to the tenses as 'extended'. The extension will be marked by a bar subscripted to an event (E):

$E^{\_}$-R-S: *I had been seeing John.*
S,R,$E^{\_}$: *I am seeing John.*

But Reichenbach (ibid) mistakenly ascribes extension of the event to the present perfect tense: $E^{\_}$-S,R: *I have seen John.* He declares that the act of seeing can be interpreted as a duration of the event up to the point of speech. He therefore contradicts his own presupposition that extension is realised by means of the present participle form.[64] In

63 This attempt to interpret the present orientation by means of Reichenbach's terms is a bit artificial as *be going to* is also oriented towards future. R simultaneous with S in this case means that there is some evidence at present. Still, the event will take place in the future. But in the case of *will*, R denotes the time of event. It is obvious that Reichenbach uses the concept of R inconsistently. It is due to the inappropriate linearity property of his model.

64 Reichenbach's mistake results from the linearity of his model again. Extension by means of the present participle and the extensive interpretation of the present perfect are based on different qualities. Participle extension refers to the duration of the event with respect to the time of performance. Present perfect extension does not say much about the duration of the event but it denotes the evidence of topicality with respect to the present time of utterance. In the system of frameworks (see Chapter 6), the difference between the extension rests on the difference in their framework of reference (absence or presence of post-indication).

I have seen John.

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Past
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Past
Post-indication	Present

addition, the extension of punctual verbs refers to the repetitiveness of the action (*He tapped the door* versus *He was tapping the door*) Thus, the category of extension depends on the lexical parameters of the main verb. For instance, with transition verbs the past simple indicates that the action has been completed but the past progressive does not. It says nothing about the duration of the event. It is thus nonsense to state: **The boy drowned but was rescued just in time.*

5.1.2 Close's model

Close (1977) introduced 'the speaker's point of primary concern' (SPPC), which is another dimension of the model. Unlike Reichenbach, Close (ibid) distinguishes the present moment (T) and some time in the future (F).[65] The interpretation of futurality constructions can be illustrated by marking the speaker's point of primary concern in relation to the present moment or some time in the future. Close (ibid) gives the following examples: *We will (T) find a cure for cancer (SPPC) (F).*

Close (ibid) claims that *will* is typically used when SPPC is in the future. Conditions for an action at F are imagined as fulfilled at F, but conditions for future action are not yet present at T. When conditions for future action are present at T, *be going to* is preferred and SPPC is directed to T: *Look at those clouds (T) (SPPC). It is going to (F) pour with rain.*

5.1.2.1 Speaker's perspective

It thus becomes obvious that the interpretation of futurality is relative and depends on the speaker's perspective. Close (ibid) claims that *will* differs from the other

I am seeing John.

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Present
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Present
Post-indication	Un-marked

65 Close's T does not correspond to Reichenbach's S. Time of speech (S) and time at present (T) do not necessarily refer to the same time level. As both time levels are important for the interpretation of a tense, as we will see below, Close and Reichenbach (ibid) neglected an important aspect or component of tense symbolisation and interpretation.

expressions as the speaker's primary point of view is located at some future time rather than moving towards it. Berglund (2005, p. 35) therefore states that "The choice between different means to express future reference is thus explained with reference to the speaker (or writer) and how s/he perceives the context or situation."[66]

Speaker's perspective plays a significant role in the selection of futural constructions. For instance, speakers prioritise *will* if they emphasise strong confidence in the eventual occurrence of the event. Palmer (1988, p. 157) claims that *will* is "a typical expression of personal attitudes to the future". The personal attitude can reflect the degree of deontic (voluntary) modality. For instance, *will* is a typical expression of willingness to realise a future event. Palmer (ibid) also claims that *will* refers to something that is planned or envisaged, which naturally requires the speaker's intention. He therefore suggests that the difference between *will* and *be going to* lies in the speaker's perspective[67] of the future action, state or event. *Will* conveys modal judgement by the speaker, while *be going to* makes an objective statement about current situations relevant for the future. [68] Similarly, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 229) show that *will* can convey a wide range of modal meanings from weak to strong volition.[69]

5.1.3 Remoteness: distance in time and relation to present time

Another factor that is thought to govern the choice between different expressions of futurality is the distance in time from the moment of speaking (S/T in Close's or Reichenbach's models) and the time which the expression of future refers to (E/F in Close's or Reichenbach's models). *Be going to* is declared to refer to events that are close

66 We claim that the contextual dependence relies both on the author's as well as on the recipient's interpretation of the context. The interpretation is negotiated only implicitly and is presupposed. Such an indirect negotiation enables one to anchor the overall situation with respect to temporality. Only when the presupposition is taken into consideration can temporality be elaborated appropriately (see Chapter 6).

67 We adopt this theory of a speaker's perspective and call the objective evidence marked by the speaker as indication (see Chapter 6).

68 This difference will be reflected be our model of framework introduced in later chapters (see Chapter 6). Objective evidence will be referred to as indication. The modal judgements will not be covered in the temporal interpretation due to their subjectivity. What merely relies on the speaker' perspective and subjective view is always uncertain and therefore difficult to interpret precisely. Unlike *will*, *be going to* is marked with present indication that can be determined, identified and described properly. The introduction of the objective indication and the subjective perspective (modal judgement) can help to differentiate (more) temporal and (more) modal attributes of the futural constructions. Haegeman (1989, p. 308) uses the term indication as a synonym for intention or cause regardless the subjective and objective nature of the two concepts.

69 It arises from the subjectivity of modal judgements that they are gradable. Indication is either present or absent. Thus, gradability appears to be an attribute of modality (modal expressions can convey various modal shadings), while indication is likely to be a temporal category (events cannot be more or less temporal).

in time, almost immediately. On the contrary, *will* is supposed to suggest more distant future (Coates, 1983, p. 200; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 214).

Haegeman (1989, p. 308) asserts that the immediateness of *be going to* is delimited by the present context. According to her, the present intention and cause are not specific meanings inherent in the structure. She claims that they "follow naturally from the present time contextualisation of the construction" and that *be going to* is "more immediate not by inherent meaning but because one only has to access present propositions." (1989, p. 308). Analogously, Close (1977, p. 148) admits that *be going to* conveys "present indications of what the future may bring." Close (ibid) uses his terminology and claims that *be going to* is used when the speaker's point of primary concern exists at the moment of speaking, which he calls present indication. The reference to present indication can be explicit or implicit.

Palmer (1988, p. 146) uses the orientation to note that *be going to* is marked with current orientation relating the event from the standpoint of the present towards the future.[70] "There are features of the present time that will determine future events." (Palmer, 1979, p. 121). Berglund emphasises that such signs can be present in the surroundings of the speaker or in the speaker's mind.[71] Thus, the speaker and their views of the action and situation need to be analysed properly to provide profound interpretation of the meanings and functions of futural constructions.

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70 We accept the term orientation and use it as a dimension of the reference framework, which enables to delimit the orientation more accurately (see Chapter 6).

71 We use the term indication to denote objective evidence that is obvious at the time of utterance or that the speaker wants to make obvious for the recipient. Indication is thus inherent in the futural structure and its meaning. There also exists subjective evidence which is mostly expressed by various modal shadings. Thus, all the following sentences convey deontic modality and differ in term of indication:

The tree is going to fall down. (objective evidence - present indication in the surroundings of the speaker)
The tree will fall down. (subjective evidence)
The tree may fall down. (subjective evidence)
The tree must fall down. (subjective evidence)

Analogously, deontic modality can also be viewed in terms of subjective and objective perspectives:

I'm going to visit you tomorrow. (objective evidence - present indication in the speaker's mind, i.e., his or her decision made before)
I will visit you tomorrow. (the subjective decision itself)
I must visit you tomorrow. (the subjective assessment of the situation and the perspectives)
I have to visit you tomorrow. (the objective assessment of the situation and the perspectives)

The indication is preserved when postponed towards the future or assessed subjectively (modalised):

You will have to visit us tomorrow. (the future postponement of the objective evidence = future indication)
They may have to visit us tomorrow. (the subjective assessment of the objective evidence = future indication)
They will be going to drive as fast as possible. (the future postponement of the objective evidence = future indication)

Future indication is not conveyed by *will* or *may in the above instances*, but *have to* or *be going to*.

Unlike *be going to*, *will* is used when "conditions for the actualisation of the situation are not present at the present moment (T) but imagined as fulfilled at some time in the future (F), which is the point of concern (SPPC) for the speaker." (Berglund, 2005, p. 36)[72]

5.2 FUTURALITY, MODALITY AND ASPECTUALITY: GENERAL ISSUES

Aarts (ibid) defines tense as a notion of grammar and its system used to locate situations in time. A situation is a contextual framework which a clause is about. Situations vary from states, occurrences, processes and achievements. When interpreting any situation and thus a tense, we have to distinguish states from occurrences. States are unbounded, so they do not have a beginning or an end. Occurrences are dynamic situations coming about, which can be bounded or unbounded.

A tense is usually supposed to be an inflectional system by means of which languages locate situations in time. Aarts (ibid) claims: "English has no future tense, because it has no future inflections, in the way that many other languages do, nor any other grammatical form or combination of forms that can exclusively be called a future tense. This does not mean we cannot talk about the future: the English language offers various alternative ways of doing so." (Aarts, p. 244)

Besides Aarts, a number of prominent grammarians came to the conclusion that there is no future tense in English. For instance, R. Huddleston and G. K. Pullum (2002) refuse future tense as a grammatical category, refusing *will* and *shall* as future auxiliaries. On the other hand, they propose that there are numerous ways of indicating future time. The verbs *will* and *shall* are then considered as auxiliaries of mood.

The proponents of the modal interpretation of *will/shall* give a number of arguments:

- The traditional tense system does not cater for the relation between *will* and *would*. The relation between *will* and *would* is the same as *can* and *could* in a number of instances. Would is thus a preterite counterpart of *will*. The traditional system that can be described as follows:

72 This makes it clear that Close's concept of SPPC is different from our concept of indication. Indication is present inherently in the futural structure itself (which can be proved to be present by means of subjectivisation/modalisation or postponement). In addition, it is based on objective evidence. SPPC can be imagined as Berglund claims. It can thus be both subjective in the case of *will* or objective in the case of *be going to*. Indication refers only to objective evidence that is inherently present in a futural construction.

Past	Present	Future
took	takes	will take

should therefore be transformed into a two-dimensional contrastive system such as:

	Past	Present
Non-future	took	takes
Future	would take	will take

- Grammatically, *will* belongs to the category of modals (*can, may, must*). A large number of properties distinguish modals from other verbs in English. *Will* belongs among the central members of modals as it shares these properties. These verbs should rather be called tense/modal auxiliaries (Huddleston et al., p. 209) without differentiating modal auxiliaries from tense auxiliaries.
- *Will* belongs semantically with tense/modal auxiliaries. *Will* as well as *shall* belong in the same semantic area as the core modal auxiliaries. To a large extent, the meaning of *will* as well as *shall* is a matter of modality. We can compare the following counterparts:

	Present	Future
Simple present	*That is the doctor.*	*They meet in the final in May.*
Will + simple infinitive	*That will be the doctor.*	*They will meet in the final in May.*

The time in each clause is the same, but the sentences with *will* bear weaker epistemic modality. Huddleston et al. (ibid) gives a similar example for other time references:

Past
He will have left already.
He may have left already.
Present
He will be in Paris now.
He may be in Paris now.
Future
He will see her tomorrow.
He may see her tomorrow.

Will in the instances behaves in the very same way as *may*. *May c*an be interpreted both as present and future (i.e., non-past) and the same holds for *will*. Both the tense/modal auxiliaries can be modified by time adjuncts such as *now*: *Now we will/may not be in time to see the start.* Huddleston et al. (ibid) claim that the pure future interpretation of *will/shall* is often based on translations of these tense/modal auxiliaries to other languages whose counterparts do contrast as present vs. future tense.

Besides the core tense/modal auxiliaries, some prominent grammar books distinguish peripheral constructions that permit a future interpretation and are thus expressions of futurality. Huddleston et al. (ibid) give the following list of constructions:

Imperative: *Give her my regards.*
Mandative subjunctive: *It is essential that she tell the truth.*
Present futurate: *The match starts tomorrow.*
Subordinate present: *If she goes, I'll go to.*
Bare-infinitival: *I may see her tomorrow.*
Full-infinitival: *I want to see her tomorrow.*
Gerund-participial: *I intend seeing her tomorrow.*

As we can see, in some of the constructions, the future interpretation cannot be separated from its modal meaning. But Berglund (2005, p. 30) counterpoints that there exists both agreement and disagreement with regard to the futural expressions. While futurality can be considered in the broad view as presented by Huddleston et al. (2002), most grammarians enumerate only a few futural expressions.

Due to the broad concept of futurality and for the purpose of our corpus-based research (see Chapter 7), it is necessary to discriminate futural expressions (that will be referred to as core expressions hereinafter). For this sake, the core futural expressions will be defined on the basis of *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 213), a relevant comprehensive academic grammar book. Quirk (ibid) determines some means of expressing future time and provides a list of the most significant expressions as follows:

- *Will/shall* + infinitive (simple, progressive and perfect)
- *Be going to* + infinitive
- Present progressive
- Present simple
- *Be to* + infinitive
- *Be about to* + infinitive
- *Be on the point of* + gerund

The same list of core futural expressions is provided by Close (1977, p. 128), Leech (2004, p. 55), Berlung (2005, p. 31) and Wekker (1976). Leech emphasises that the constructions can be regarded as independent structures as they are not mutually interchangeable. Biber et al. (1999) avoid marking future time in their corpus-based grammar book. Futurality is only analysed and interpreted within the concept of modality.

On the other hand, Crystal (2003, p. 224) includes modal verbs in the set of the core futural constructions. [73]

	will/ 'll/ shall + inf.	*going to/ gonna* + inf.	simple present	present progressive	*will/shall* + progressive inf.	*be to* + inf.	*be about to* + inf.	modals	other
Examples (see below)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**
Biber et al. (1999)	x	x						(x)	
Close (1977)	x	x	x	x		x			
Crystal (2003)	x	x	x	x		x		x	
Huddleston & Pullum (2002)	x		x	x				x	x
Leech (1971, 2004)	x	x	x	x	x				
Palmer (1965, 1974)	x	x	x	x					
Quirk et al. (1985)	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		
Wekker (1976)	x	x	x	x	x				

Table 1: Distribution of expressions of futurality in grammar books and studies

Berglund (2005, p. 21) claims that the core structures have different status in terms of expressing futurality. While *will* always expresses that the action is to take place at a time after the present, present forms (simple and progressive) do not refer to the future inherently. The future interpretation is more or less expressed by adverbials:

I go to London tomorrow versus *I go to London.*
I am going to London tomorrow versus *I am going to London.*
I will go to London tomorrow versus *I will go to London.*

Thus future reference of some of the core structures can be attributed to contextual elements rather than the structures themselves.[74] Berglund (ibid) also claims that no future tense marker can be isolated and identified as having the one and only function of showing

73 Berglund (2005, p. 32) states that *will* and *be going to* are considered as futural expressions, analysed and interpreted by most grammarians.
74 Berlung (2005, p. 22) emphasises that to isolate instances of present form referring to the future, it is necessary to go through all instances collected in a corpus manually. We will observe the recommendations in our research (see Chapter 7).

future reference. In addition, the tense is not morphologically marked (2005, p. 29).[75] Instead of future tenses, it is recommended to use the term futural techniques, constructions or structures[76].

On the other hand, constructions used for future reference in English do not exclusively express futurality. *Will* and *shall* are also modal auxiliaries and *will* often does not refer to the future at all. Thus, Palmer (1988) states they cannot be treated as markers of the future tense.

Contrary to most theoreticians, Wekker (1976) and Dušková (1988) are proponents of a future tense in English. They both argue that the meaning of *will* as well as *shall* expressing purely neutral and factual statements about future events can be identified and isolated. In addition, past and present tenses can also be coloured by modality (Wekker, 1976, p. 18). Other languages such as Romance languages also possess a variety of futural expressions. Thus, this argument must be rejected. Other modal verbs convey futural meaning as a secondary connotation:

> *The weather may improve (tomorrow).* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 217)
> *You must have dinner with us (sometime soon).* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 217)

Besides the core expressions and modal auxiliaries, Quirk et al. (ibid) also admit that futural meaning can be inherent in lexical phrases and verbs (*be sure to, be bound to, hope* and *intend*).

Leech (2004, p. 71) asserts that there are various constructions conveying futurality in English, but the consequent connotations with respect to future reference can be overemphasised. Thus, various expressions of futurality occur in similar contexts and are perfectly acceptable:

- *The parties will meet for final negotiations on July 25.*
- *The parties are going to meet for final negotiations on July 25.*
- *The parties are meeting meet for final negotiations on July 25.*
- *The parties meet for final negotiations on July 25.*
- *The parties will be meeting for final negotiations on July 25.*
- *The parties are to meet for final negotiations on July 25.*

Generally speaking, aspectuality is a notion which concerns how a situation unfolds in time and how this unfolding is perceived. In English, we recognise perfect and

75 The temporal system of two tenses is also proposed by Quirk et al. (1985, p. 176), Crystal (2003, p. 196), Close (1977, p. 126) and Joos (1968, p. 120). They emphasise the fact that tense is strictly defined as a category realised by verb inflection.
76 We consider and use all the expressions as synonyms throughout the dissertation.

progressive aspect. The progressive as well as the perfect aspect can be used to refer to the future (Quirk et al., 1985). The progressive aspect presents a dynamic situation, which is not necessarily complete as it is progress over a limited period. The progressive aspect can be related to futurality mainly in the present progressive tense and non-finite progressive forms.[77]

As we have claimed above, futurality and modality can hardly be separated from one another. Any future action is always under question in terms of its realisation. Thus, futural constructions always convey epistemic modality. Leech (2004, p. 69) classifies the expressions according to the type of epistemic modality as follows:

- Futurate simple present is the most certain option expressing future as fact.
- *Will* + infinitive, *will* + progressive infinitive and subordinate future present convey neutral reference to the future predicted to happen.
- *Be going to* and futurate present progressive are used to express the least certain option as the future they refer to is an outcome of present intention, cause and arrangement. [78]

Both *will* and *shall* belong to the class of modal verbs because of their morphological and semantic features. *Will* as a modal verb is used to express prediction and volition. Prediction can be oriented to the future. The present-oriented prediction is a means of conveying 'logical necessity'. Volition conveyed by *will* ranges from intention and willingness to insistence (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 228).

"*Shall* is in present-day English (especially in AmE) a rather rare auxiliary and has only two uses, both with a first-person subject, are generally current." (Quirk et al., p. 229) *Shall* is used to express prediction and volition with the first-person subjects. In both the cases, *shall* is a substitute for *will*. *Shall* conveys obligational meaning in first-person subject questions since it consults the wishes of the addressee. *Shall* is also used as a manner of expressing the speaker's volition in two instances. These are the cases of either granting a favour or giving orders. The third-person subject in a sentence with the auxiliary *shall* occurs frequently in legal discourse:

The *be going to*[79] construction belongs to the group of semi-auxiliary verbs. "The semi-auxiliaries consist of a set of verb idioms which express modal or aspectual meaning and which are introduced by one of the primary verbs *have* and *be*." (Quirk et al., p. 143)

77 The category of aspect exceeds the scope of the dissertation. We will devote major attention to the interpretation of futural expressions with respect to temporality and modality.

78 This ordering does not correspond to other theoreticians (Wekker, 1976) or the nature of *will*, which occurs after expressions of uncertainty (*think, believe, hope, expect, suppose*).

79 *Be going to* is often represented in writing as *gonna* which is an alternative to *be going to* in many informal contexts. *It's not gonna take two minutes. Then we'll have finished*. *What are you gonna do with them?* (Carter et al., p. 631)

Quirk et al. (ibid) describe the construction of *be going to* as a means expressing 'future fulfilment of the present'. The use of *be going to* can be divided into two instances with more specific meanings. It expresses either 'future fulfilment of present intention' or 'future result of present cause'.

The strict distinction between modal and futural meanings and functions of the expressions was proposed by Haegeman (1983) who identified two categories of the meaning of *will* in contemporary English: pure future (eleven functions) and coloured future (9 functions). Apparently, she considers futurality as the fundamental meaning of *will* and modality as its colouring. By discriminating instances of pure future *will*, Haegeman (ibid) proposes the existence of a core futural means in English.[80]

On the basis of the concepts presented above, it is possible to postulate two maxims of the mutual relation of futurality and modality:

I. Futurality always expresses a degree of epistemic modality inherently.

II. Some expressions of deontic modality can also convey futurality.

Apparently, the two categories are so interrelated that they cannot be distilled from one another. In addition, it exceeds the scope of the dissertation to isolate the two categories strictly. Hence, we will attempt to cover all instances that refer to the future whether they be 'more modal' or 'more futural'.

5.3 CORE EXPRESSIONS OF FUTURALITY[81]

5.3.1 Will

5.3.1.1 Will + simple infinitive

The contracted form of *'ll* is regarded as a contracted form of *will* as well as the negative *won't* (Leech, 2004, p. 56).[82] *Will* conveys both futurality and modality (Leech, 2004, p. 56), but the two functions can hardly be differentiated. Futurality is always

80 Dušková (1994, p. 228) provides the same argumentation as Haegeman (ibid).

81 The expressions of *will, shall, be going to* and present progressive have been analysed in Mikuláš (2007). Only a few more details will be presented here. Particular attention will be given to the differences and nuances among the core expressions.

82 The contracted form is sometimes taken to represent both *will* and *shall* (such as in Carter et al., 2006). But the historical and semantic ground prove that *'ll* is contracted will (Quirk et al, 1985, p. 228). Still, the nature and interpretation of *'ll* appears to be different from both *will* and *shall*. Burglund (2005) recommends that *'ll* is analysed separately from *will*.

uncertain unlike the past and present. Futurality thus always reflects the speaker's uncertainty even if confident predictions are made. Predictions expressed by *will* involve the speaker's judgements. *Will* is used with all three persons to express the futural predicative meaning.

Leech (2004, p. 57) claims that will is the most frequent form in the main clause of conditional sentences: *If you press this button, the roof will slide back.* Futurality in the if-clause is usually expressed by the present simple tense. Unlike other expressions of futurality, *will* is suitable for both long-term and short-term forecasts. Therefore, there is restriction with respect to remoteness.

Will can have very specific functions depending on the genre and context. As well as other constructions of futurality, it can express narrative futurality in fiction: *Will John Jennings escape from the clutches of Red Reagan's gang?* In non-fiction, *will* can denote virtual future (Leech, 2004, p. 57) to refer forward to a later part of a book or article. In the military context, *will* can occur in orders: *You will not move a muscle until I say so.*

In the academic and professional context, will is used in conditional clauses expressing cause-effect relations. Most grammarians have adopted the rule saying that *will* which appears in a dependent conditional or temporal clause requires a volitional interpretation (i.e., reference to the future cannot occur after if¨; volition can occur after if). Close (ibid) admits three interpretations in the following example:

> *If he´ll be left destitute, I´ll change my will.* (Close, p. 102)
>
> a) If it is likely that, with my will in its present form, he´ll be left destitute, I´ll change it in his favour.
>
> b) If, by changing my will, I can leave him penniless, then I will cut him out of it.
>
> c) If he is willing to live in absolute poverty after I die, I will leave my money to someone else.[83]

It is significant that in a) and b) *will* refers to a possible event in future time. The third interpretation denotes volition. Close (ibid) tries to prove that if + non-volitional *will* can occur naturally with both personal and non-personal subjects.

Close (ibid) proposes that the present tense expresses what is imagined as an actual fact in if-clauses: 'If X is a fact, then I predict Y'. "In other words, if we may assume such and such an event or state to be a future actuality, then the following prediction can be made." (Close, p. 108): *If he comes tomorrow, we will tell him everything.* (Close, p. 100)

83 All the three interpretations are in compliance with our explanation of the phenomenon based on disjoint realisation frameworks of the actions (*being left destitute* and *changing the will*).

But in if-clauses containing *will*, one is concerned with assumed predictability rather than with assumed future actuality: 'If X is predictable, then the consequence is so-and-so.' The distinction can be demonstrated by the following two examples:
If the slick will come as far as Stavanger, then of course I must take precautions on a massive scale (the person is discussing predictions) (Close, p. 103).[84]
If the slick comes as far as Stavanger, hundreds of miles of our coastline will be spoilt (one can consider the arrival of the slick as actually occurring) (Close, p. 109).

To sum up, the notion of assumed predictability seems to explain reasonably all the examples of if + non-volitional *will*. Conditional clauses with future reference can therefore be classified according to the following scheme:

Assumed predictability	Assumed future actuality
(a) with volition	
(b) without volition	
(realised by, e.g., *if he/she/it will*)	(realised by, e.g., *if he/she/it is*)

5.3.1.2 *Will* + progressive infinitive

Will (*'ll* or *shall*) with the perfect infinitive is used to express past in the future. Leech (2004, p. 57) explains that it refers "to a state or event seen in the past from a viewpoint in the future."

The construction *will* (*'ll* or *shall*) refers to temporary situations in the future. The tense creates a temporal frame around a future point, which makes it comparable with the past progressive form (Leech, 2004, p. 66).

The future progressive is also used to express a state of affair or ongoing happening. In such instances, no framing effect or intention can be identified: *The team will be getting ready for the match next month.* Analogously, the framing is absent when the future progressive expresses happening viewed in its entirety: *I'll be writing to you soon.* (Leech, 2004, p. 67)

All the above functions of the future progressive have a common feature. They express the future as a matter of course (~ *such and such is going to happen*). The framing effect is thus only a secondary feature as well as volitional colouring (willingness, plan or

84 We claim that the use of *will* is affected by the disjoint realisation frameworks of the main and the dependent clause as the times of performance of 'taking precautions' 'the oil coming' are different (see Chapter 6 and Chapter 7).

intention) of the structure. This makes the construction different from the present progressive form, *be going to* or the simple future.

The volitional overtones predominate within the future simple tense with human subjects and agentive verbs (Leech, 2004, p. 67; Wekker, 1976; Mikuláš, 2007):

- *I'll drive into London next week.* (~ I've made up my mind. That's what I've decided and what I want.)
- *I'll be driving into London next week.* (~ This will happen as a matter of course.)
- *Will you put on another play soon?* (~ It is a request, which can become more urgent with 'please'.)
- *Will you be putting on another play soon?* (~ Is this going to happen? Is there any evidence?)

Some statements can be interpreted with or without the framing effect. *I will be meeting my boss at lunchtime* can either mean that the time between 11 am and 2 pm (the frame) will be devoted to the meeting or that as a matter of course I will turn up at my boss's office. The matter-of-course interpretation is not possible with state verbs where time adverbials represent the temporal frame: *We will be living in Prague next year.*

Another dimension that must be taken into consideration is the aspect of politeness. The future progressive appears to me more polite than other expressions of futurality. The lack of volitional colouring enables interpretation that diminish the speaker's volition (willingness, intention and plan): *Can I give you a lift? I'll be driving to London next week.* ~ You will not cause me any trouble. I will be making the journey anyway.

In questions, the present progressive does not impose any suggestion or pressure on the addressee. Thus, *Will you be putting on another play soon* only expresses polite interest in the future programme.

Analogously to other futural expressions, the matter-of-course use of the future progressive conveys such a high degree of certainty that not too remote future is expected. But the future is not too close to the present moment either (Leech, 2004, p. 68).

Obviously, if actions cannot be realised as a matter of course, i.e., they are too sudden, violent or abnormal, the future progressive is not acceptable. Otherwise, it has a crazy or comic meaning, which is often exploited in colloquial idioms: *You'll be using your head one of these days.* The absurdity of the actions and the matter-of-course nature of the form create a comic hyperbole.

5.3.2 Shall

Shall is becoming rare.[85] According to Leech (2004, p. 56), it is an equivalent of the prediction of *will* only with a first-person pronoun as the subject. With other subjects, it conveys a more modal meaning such as a threat or promise (*You shall receive what you deserve.*) Still, such instances of *shall* are rather rare and old-fashioned. When grammatically conscious writers want to prove their best linguistic behaviour, they can feel *shall* is a more appropriate form.[86]

Shall is sometimes thought to have other meanings than futural. But Berglund (2005, p. 23) opposes this as well as other modals, *shall* has more than one meaning at the same time. So futural and modal interpretations are possible simultaneously.[87]

In addition, there exists regional, diachronic and formal differentiation of *will* and *shall*. *Shall* with second and third person subjects is old-fashioned. With first person subjects it is used in more formal styles of speaking and especially writing. In American English, spoken *shall* with first person subjects occurs in very formal situations (Leech, 2004, p. 58).

5.3.3 Be going to

This idiomatic phrase is one of the most frequently presented expressions of futurality in contemporary comprehensive grammar books of the English language. Historically, the idiom is derived from the lexical verb *go*, but lost its lexical interpretation. The future meaning therefore cannot be inherently deduced from the meaning of *go* (unlike other idioms of futurality – see below). That is also the reason why *be going to* cannot be mistaken for the present progressive form of *go*. The idiom has lost its meaning of motion

85 Leech (2004, p. 56) claims that will is 10 times more frequent than *shall*.
86 It is one of the reasons of a fairly high occurrence of *shall* in professional economic texts (see Chapter 7).
87 Berglund (2005, p. 23) claims "There are at least two reasons for adopting this approach. One is related to semantic interpretation. Even if an instance of the expression can be interpreted as also expressing obligation, it is nevertheless the case that the time when this obligation is to be fulfilled lies in the future, so the temporal reference is thus futural. The second reason is methodological. A study where all instances of the expression are included in the analsis can be easily replicated and critically examined as no counts are based on subjective assessment." Here, Berglund defines his concept of the future reference. It is a verbal form referring to an action whose time of fulfilment lies in the future.

and progressivity. But the phrase definitely locates the complement situation in future time.[88]

According to Aarts (p. 309), *be going to* is used to refer to future time. The phrase also has its aspectual qualities due to the presence of the progressive form, and because it has 'current orientation'. Thus, the phrase conveys a sense of immediacy or, at least, it implies some current purpose.

I'm going to be in Ramsford tomorrow.

Oh God. I'm going to stop for a minute.

Similarly to *will* and *may*, *be going to* can also express an epistemic meaning as in the following example: *I think that there is going to be incompetence in every profession.*

It is a prediction based on general knowledge. Leech delimits the meaning of the *be going to* structure by present circumstances that result in some future outcome.[89] The circumstances are either present intentions or present cause.[90] Danchev et al. (1965) recognise a number of functions that the construction fulfils:

- expression of intention and determination,
- expression of pure future,
- expression of aspect,
- expression of uncertainty,
- synonym for *be about to* and *be on the point of*, and
- expression of near future.

Unfortunately, the classification of the functions is inconsistent as near future can be conveyed through both intention, pure future, aspect and uncertainty.

88 The form *was/were going to* can also express past futurate (or future in the past): *Bob was going to try and find him today.*

89 The happening anticipated on the basis of the present evidence does not necessarily lead to its realisation. This becomes apparent if future in the past expressed by *be going to* is considered: *He was going to sue me, but I persuaded him it would be pointless.* (Leech, 2004, p. 61) The non-fulfilment of the action is especially apparent when the construction is used in the present perfect tense: *He has been going to fix that window-catch for months.* (Leech, 2004, p. 61). Such instances prove that fulfilment itself is not inherent in the meaning of *be going to*. At the same time, the invariable component of the meaning is the presence of some objective indication. In both the above examples, some evidence based on the agent's decision and preparation is/was traceable before the time of speech as well as the time of the action.

90 Leech (ibid) points out that *be going to* can be mistaken for *go* with the purpose infinitive. Thus, *I'm going to see my grandmother* can either mean *I intend to see my grandmother* or *I'm going there in order to see.* (2004, p. 58) Still, Leech (ibid) emphasises that there is a difference between the two interpretations. The latter does not say whether the departure will take place or not. The *be going to* construction conveys a strong expectation the intention will result in departure. *Be going to* implies strong confidence.

5.3.3.1 Differences between *be going to* and *will*

Be going to differs from *will* in the following aspects (Huddleston et al., 2002, p. 211):

- The level of formality: *Be going to* is characteristic for relatively informal style. *Will* is neutral in terms of formality and can be found in both formal and informal contexts.
- Inflection: The *be* component can be inflected and forms full and bare infinitive forms. As a result, *be going to* can be found in wider contexts, even together: *He will/may be going to resign.*
- The differences can be found in the matrix and complement times. The matrix time of both *will* and *be going to* refers to the future. But unlike *will*, the complement of be going to is always future. *Will* allows other interpretations. In addition, there is more focus on the matrix time in case of *be going to* rather than in case of *will*. Huddleston et al. give the following example: *The dog's going to/ will take the roast. Will* in this case lacks in the implicature of immediate futurality. *Be going to* presupposes the immediate danger of the dog taking the roast. In the following instance, the matrix time of *be going to* is more emphasised and concrete: *The secretary is going to/ will give you a timetable.*
  While *will* implies a conditional or volitional interpretation (*if you ask, if you want*), *be going to* suggests that the secretary has been instructed.
- Statistical occurrence: According to Leech (2004, p. 58) the *be going to* structure is the second most frequent expression of futurality, *will* being the most frequent.

The greatest discrepancy can be found in *will* and *be going to* subordinate future in conditional clauses. First, the use of *will* and *be going to* in conditional clauses is very limited and specific. Huddleston et al. gives the following example: *If you're going to/will* lose your temper, I'm not going to/will play.*

Whereas *be going to* in this case presupposes some present evidence (the process of losing temper has started), *will* is unnatural. *Will* in if-clauses prevails in instances of indirect requests and under the condition there is objective predictability (the event must be predictable)[91]. In addition, be going to can be used in if-clauses as an alternative to modal *be to* in goal and purpose oriented conditionals: *If we are going to get there on time, we must leave immediately.* Aarts gives the following example: *If I'm going to make such a meal out of every exercise, I'll never complete the course.*

Will is rare in such cases and can mostly be used in a conditional clause only when expressing volition. When a volitional meaning is excluded (the agent is obviously not willing), *will* is inappropriate. On the contrary, in some instances, *will* is more appropriate:

91 Huddleston et al. (ibid) emphasise the objectivity of certain indications which are always conveyed by the *be going to* structure. We reflect this interpretation (see Chapter 6 and Chapter 7).

Please ask whether the auctioneer will complete the notification of sale on your behalf. If they will not, you should tell DVLA in writing that you have transferred the vehicle to the auction firm.[92]

Aarts (ibid) also gives an instance in which *will* and *going to* are replaceable, but differ in meaning. The most likely reading of *will* is volition, but if we substitute *be going to* for *will*, the clause will express intention: *If Parliament will not/is not going to restrain its law-making zeal, it should at least have addressed this state of affairs by making legal advice and assistance available to the myriad caught in its tentacles.*

Regarding closeness of the complement future, this is not a prerequisite of the use of *be going to*. We can find instances such as *Ann is going to retire in ten years' time*. The use of *be going to* here presupposes some arrangement or intention and present focus does not exclude the use of the time adverbial. Some present focus of *will* can also be found such as in *Now we will have to wait until Friday; I won't put up with it*.

- In terms of the future in the past, the difference lies in absence of actualisation in the case of *be going to*. Unlike *would*, in *He was going to/would marry his tutor at the end of the year* the *be going to* construction does not imply they really got married. The intention of the past arrangement is thus stronger than its current focus.
- Both be going to and *will* express dynamic volition in this example: *I have asked her to join us, but she's not going to/won't.* But *won't* expresses refusal, i.e., lack of willingness. The meaning of *be going to* suggests intention and does not say much about the agent's willingness. The difference is even more obvious if we turn the sentence into the past. She *wouldn't* is expected, but *wasn't going to* is possible if she finally joined us (i.e., she finally changed her mind).
- Immediate futurality can be expressed in a number of ways. Together with *be about to, be on the point of, be on the verge of* and others. Unlike *be about to*, *be going to* usually excludes the interpretation of extreme closeness. All these expressions can be used in the past (as instances of future in the past), but only expressions of immediate futurality can be modified by *already* or *just*:
  She was already going to tell us.
  She was already about to tell us.
  He was just going to eat it.
  He was just about to eat it.

As we have seen, *will* and *be going to* can be combined and form one expression of futurality which we *will* call future in the future. Aarts (p. 308) gives the following example: *The admissions process for entry in 2007 begins when the schools go back this month, although children will only find out in March which schools they will be going to*

92 This instance of *will* in an if-clause can also be explained on the basis of a disjoint framework of realisation of the super- and subordinate events (see Chapter 6 and Chapter 7).

attend.[93] This ability to combine is presented by some authors as a proof of the modal/futural lexical nature of the *be going to* phrase (such as in case of be likely to and many others). We will classify the phrase as a core expression of futurality in accordance with a few comprehensive grammars.

Leech (2004) as well as Wekker (1976) claim that the use of *be going to* is limited by other contextual factors. Present intention regularly co-occurs with human subjects and with agentive verbs. The strong agentive dependence proves to be true especially when *be going to* is used in the passive voice. Then the intention must be ascribed to an implied agent: *The wall is going to be repainted.*[94] (Leech, 2004, p. 59)

The future of present causes appears to co-occur with particular contextual factors (Wekker, 1967, Mikuláš 2007). This use of *be going to* tends to be used with animals and inanimate subjects. Still, it is common to both agentive and non-agentive verbs. Leech (2004, p. 59) thus asserts that the future of present cause "covers a wider range of contexts than the intentional meaning of *be going to*." Factors that signal realisation of the event are already present. Leech claims that "the train of events leading to the future happening is already under way (2004, p. 59). In the case of the intentional meaning of *be going to,* the signals are not so explicit as they are based on the agent's decision and his or her arrangement of the action.[95]

Leech (2004, p. 59) also present the *be going to* construction as a means of conveying immediate futurality: *Watch it! That pile of boxes is going to fall. ('I can see it already tottering.')* Leech considers *be going to*, *be about to* and *be on the point of* as near synonyms. Immediateness is certainly implied if no time adverbial is present. While *"We're going to buy a house in the country"* implies the action will take place 'soon', it is also possible to refer to a distant future using *be going to*: *"We're going to buy a house in the country when we retire."*

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93 Our explanation of this phenomenon is provided below (see Chapter 6 and Chapter 7).

94 The sentence can have two interpretations: Outcome of a present cause: "Look at the brushes and cans. The wall is going to be repainted." Outcome of a present intention: "They have ordered all the necessary brushes. The wall is going to be repainted." While intention of an implied agent is present only in the second instance. In both the instances objective evidence is expressed. We thus claim that the evidence is an invariant of *be going to* that is inherent and constitutes the meaning of the construction. Analogously, Leech (2004, p. 59) states that *"He is going to arrive late at the concert."* can mean it is the person's intention (the decision has been made and the person has arranged his or her agenda) or it is apparent due to the person's behaviour. Intention is an aspect arising from the agent's will and it is always subjective. The extent of the intention will thus always be open to doubt. But the speaker's perspective shows an objective indication in any case.

95 Leech compares *will* and *be going to* with respect to the present indication. He assumes that the sentence *She will have twins* might be the pronouncement of a fortune-teller. But *She's going to have twins* suggests that she is already pregnant.

Be going to is less likely to appear in most future conditional sentences. Sentences in which *be going to* is not acceptable prove the constricted use of the construction: **If you pay by cash, you are normally going to obtain a receipt as proof of payment.* (Leech, 2004, p. 60)

Even though *normally* suggests the omnitemporal interpretation of the if-clause, Leech presents it as a future conditional sentence. According to him, futurality arises from eventuality described in the main clause. The eventuality depends more on future rather than present circumstances. Thus, there is no indication present to trigger the effect of *be going to*. In addition, *if* in the above clause can simply be replaced by *whenever*. *Will* in such a clause is more natural as it also expresses omnitemporality.

Be going to is not eliminated from future conditional sentences. If present evidence is mentioned in the if-clause, then *be going to* can be used. In fact, the condition expressed in the if-clause represents the present indication necessary for *be going to* to be applicable. It means that the conditions for the future event already exist: *We're going to find ourselves in difficulty if we go on like this.* (Leech, 2004, p. 60) But Leech (2004, p. 60) admits that *be going to* might be replaced by *will* with almost no change in meaning.

As mentioned above, imminence is not a necessary and therefore neither an inherent component of the *be going to* meaning. It is certainly possible to find present evidence of any coming event however remote.

Present intention: *I'm going to do what I like when I retire.* (Leech, 2004, p. 60)

Present cause: *If Winterbottom's calculations are correct, this planet is going to burn itself out 200,000,000 years from now.* (Leech, 2004, p. 60)

Obviously, the less remote future actions are, the more probable it is to find some present indication. If the sense of destiny is vague, *will* and *be going to* are replaceable as their meanings are close to one another[96]:

The whole idea of the digital computer will/is going to be obsolete in fifty years. (Leech, 2004, p. 60)

Imminence seems to be only affiliated to *be going to*. It does not arise from its essence inherently as it can also be replaced by *will* if there is an adverb signalling the soonness of the action. The imminence is thus conveyed by an adverbial rather than the structure itself: *What will happen now? – What is going to happen now?* (Leech, 2004, p. 60)

96 Still, the explanation of the difference between the two futural expressions in such instances is based on the presence or absence of present indication.

Leech (2004, p. 60) also emphasises that the use of *be going to* changes diachronically. At present, *be going to* slowly replaces *will* in a number of instances especially in speech. In addition, *be going to* can be used in a number of forms that are impossible with *will* (Leech, 2004, p. 61): *I have been going to finish that job for ages. Be going to* can also be complemented by the perfect and progressive infinitives:

Are you sure you're going to have finished the job by the time they arrive?

I guess they're going to be watching the World Cup all week.[97]

Together with *will*, *be going to* conveys future in the future: *They will be going to speak to the boss about it that afternoon.* [98]

Binnick (1972) claims that statements with *will* can be perceived as incomplete. Berglund (2005, p. 37) also asserts that sentences like *The rock will fall* need some information to be added, for instance an if-clause, *The rock will fall if you push it*, or reference to a time point, *The rock will fall at three o'clock.* Unlike *will*, *be going to* is felt to be self-constituted. Haegeman (1989, p. 306) explains the relative 'incompleteness' of *will* as a lack of contextualisation. The interpretation of *will* is thus more context-dependent. Berglund (2005, p. 38) also concludes that *going to* is a marker that makes the recipient read a present intention or cause. The meaning of *will* needs external markers, so it depends more on the context. Binnick (1972, p. 7) explains that "because it [be going to] does not depend on hypothetical conditions; if no condition is explicit, it is assumed that all conditions for the future event have been met"[99]. Binnick (ibid) also exemplifies how the choice of expression affects the meaning of minimal (contrastive) pairs:

> *When we build this new one, we'll have nine houses up.* = the new construction results in our having nine houses up, therefore we now have only eight (according to Close's model, the speaker's point of concern is located in F; the conditions are fulfilled in the future and only then will the houses be nine in number)

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97 *Be going to* is thought not be applicable after expressions of doubt (for instance *I think, I expect, I am (not sure)*). The instances show that such a rule is not legitimate. Still, we can find difference between the following: *I am sure he will win the race. I guess he is going to win the race.* While the first sentence expresses doubt about the future realisation of the action (*I guess that he might win.*), the second sentence conveys doubt about the evidence (*I guess there is some present evidence suggesting he might win.*) More will be said about the concept of indication in the Analytical part of the dissertation.

98 Future in the future is an obscure term. It is disputable whether there can exist another future in the future. The use of *be going to* together with *will*, can be explained with respect to the postponement of the indication (see Chapter 6 and Chapter 7). As we have proposed, indication is the inherent component of *be going to*. And it seems not to be the futural reference (marked by the time of performance/action) that is postponed, but the indication itself. The author of the sentence thus expects there will be evidence in the future indicating their meeting with the boss.

99 We also agree that *be going to* is self-established as it conveys futural reference together with appropriate indication inherently. But *will* is an expression of futural reference that is un-marked in terms of indications. Otherwise, if both the expressions conveyed futurality of the same quality, the combination of *will* and *be going to* (future in the future) would be a redundant construction in conflict with the principle of language economy.

When we build this new one, we are going to have nine houses up. = the use of *be going to* signals that all conditions are fulfilled and that being the nine houses up is not conditional (according to Close's model, the speaker's point of concern refers to T; all the conditions have been set)[100]

The interpretation of the two expressions of futurality may remain unclear. Even outstanding grammarians find difficulties in differentiating *will* and *be going to*, and find the two mutually interchangeable under some circumstances:

- "… it must not be assumed that the choice of one form or the other can always be explained… although they may be seen to be semantically different, it does not follow that there are no situations in which either is equally appropriate, so that in a particular context there is no explanation why one is used rather than the other." (Palmer 1988, p. 148)
- "…at the level of sentence meaning *be going to* and *shall/will* are equivalent…" (Haegeman, 1989, p. 291)
- "However it must be made clear that *will* and *be going to* are often interchangeable, or can be substituted for each other with only the faintest change of meaning." (Coates 1983, p. 201)
- "*Be going to* … is often either in contrast or in free variation with *will*." (Palmer 1988, p. 146)

But it can be deduced from the conclusions that the interpretation of the futural constructions must be considered in a wider context and co-text exceeding a single sentence.[101]

5.3.4 Present tense

5.3.4.1 The present futurate

Besides its present use, the present tense can express futurality as the so called present futurate (Huddleston et al., 2002). The present situation is located in the present and scheduled to take place as a natural occurrence. It brings the anticipated situation to the fore and thus makes the conversation in speech lively. A time adverbial marking the futurate use is usually required.

Berglund (2005, p. 21) states that the future reference of the present tense primarily lies in the grammatical context. Unlike *will*, the futural use of the present tense regularly

100 It is justifiable to deduce that the construction of the ninth house has already been started.
101 Besides the contextual and co-textual factors, other external factors play a significant role in the selection of appropriate futural construction. As the dissertation focuses on the written professional economic text, the factors of medium, text-category and the author's social status need to be considered.

co-occurs with time adverbials referring to the future or in adverbial clauses with future time reference:

I go to London tomorrow. (future time reference)
I go to London regularly. (habitual action, present time reference)
I go to London. (unknown temporal reference)

versus

I will go to London. (future time reference.)

While *will* primarily refers to the future without any adverbial reference[102], the present form has future reference arising from the adverbial. Thus, when there is no adverbial, it cannot be deduced whether the sentence refers to the future or not.

5.3.4.2 Subordinate futurality

In subordinate clauses, present simple tense can refer to the future. In this case, the present simple tense is not necessarily based on a schedule. Its interpretation mostly depends on the future time marker in the superordinate clause, i.e., the matrix clause (Aarts, 2011, p. 249). The matrix clause establishes a future time sphere or framework which extends into the subordinate clause.

Leech (2004, p. 63) claims that subordinate futurality occurs namely in conditional, temporal and manner dependent clauses: *I'll tell you if it hurts*. Leech explains that *will* in the dependent clause would also indicate prediction, but something given and assumed to be the case. If the present simple refers to the future, it depends on the future reference in the main clause. Leech thus asserts that subordinate futurality is always delimited by the superordinate.

The subordinate present tense also occurs in other dependent clauses (that-clauses, *wh*-clauses, relative clauses) if the main clause clearly refers to the future. This holds true even for expressions of lexical futurality such as *make sure*:

Make sure you come in time.
Suppose we come late.
The chairman is bound to say what he does tomorrow.

Subordinate futurality also co-occurs with modal verbs in the main clause (Leech, 2004, p. 64): *The man she marries will have to be rich.*

102 Leech (2004, p. 57) states that will without an adverbial of definite time appears rather incomplete and cannot stand alone due to its factual emptiness: **It will rain.* On the other hand, *be going to* is acceptable on its own: *It's going to rain.*

Some verbs occur with both the subordinate present simple or *will* such as *hope* or *bet*[103] or with adjectival expressions (typically in the imperative mood)[104] such as *be sure, make sure, be careful*:

I hope he will come/comes.
I bet he will come/comes.
Be sure you lock the door.

The subordinate futurality can therefore be ambiguous between its present and futural interpretation (Leech, 2004, p. 64):

If you already know the answers, you will pass the exam.
~ If you know the answers now… (present meaning)
~ If you know the answers when you take the exam… (future meaning)

If *will* is used in the subordinate clause, it has to convey some extra meaning besides the neutral prediction. Leech (2004, p. 64) suggests that it occurs when the time-zones of the super- and subordinate clauses differ: *If you'll be alone at the New Year, just let us know about it.* ~ It seems that you will be alone in New York (prediction) so tell us now.[105]

Leech admits that *be going to* can exchange *will* in this instance.

If present simple is used instead of *will*, it adopts the time zone of the imperative: *If you are alone at the New Year, just let us know about it.* ~ If it happens that you find yourself alone this New Year, tell us about it at that time.

If *will* occurs in both the super- and subordinate clauses, the subordinate *will* can have a strong volitional interpretation. It can express an indirect request and can be replaced by *be willing to.*

Leech (ibid) also suggests that subordinate futurality is not conveyed merely by the present simple tense. Other forms are also acceptable such as the present progressive form, the present perfect form or the past simple form (Leech 2004, p. 65):

Don't forget to phone me tomorrow and let me know how you're getting on. (the present progressive form refers to a future scenario)
As soon as the guests have been welcomed, show them into the garden. (the present perfect form is used to express the past in the future)
If you don't take this job, you'll always regret that you missed you chance. (the past simple form is used to express the past in the future)

103 The same verbs convey lexical futurality in Czech. Bláha (2008, p. 159) classifies such verbs into verba sentiendi (*těšit se*) and verba dicendi (*rozkazovat, poručit, přikázat, slibovat*).
104 The futural nature of imperative is suggested by Bláha (2008) and Huddleston et al. (2002).
105 We adopt this explanation and analyse it by means of temporal frameworks (see Chapter 6).

In independent clauses, the present simple form conveys the same degree of certainty as the present form used to express future assumed to be fact. Such expressions usually contain references to calendar data: *Tomorrow is Tuesday* and *This Thursday is Carl's birthday.*

Present simple expresses immutability in such instances. While other expressions of futurality express doubt about future, present simple is used to state categorical affirmations and facts. This expression is therefore a marked form of future. Leech (2004, p. 65) claims that the present simple form expressing future "overrides the normal feeling that the future is less certain than the present or past. *Next week John fails his driving test* is unthinkable except as an ironical comment, suggesting that John's failure is as sure as the rising of the sun, or the fact that Wednesday will succeed Tuesday."

Arrangements and plans expressed by the present simple form also mark unalterable reality: *The bus leaves at 6. We start for Paris this afternoon.* The plan conveyed by the present progressive can be altered later. The progressive form therefore has the connotation of being 'susceptible to change'. In addition, the plan of the present progressive is supposed to have been made by the subject of the sentence. This is more a tendency and preference than a fact as sentences such as *The event is starting at 6 o'clock* are possible. But the present simple is felt as impersonal, even collective in terms of arranging the plan. Adverbials are optional if the present simple refers to futurality in a narrative sequence (similar to the past simple narrative use): *We meet at the station at 9, catch the train to London, have a snack and walk to the castle.*

The decision and plan are asserted as irrevocable. Similarly, the present simple form expresses decision that is inexorable: *One more step and I shoot you* (Leech, 2004, p. 66). This use of the present simple called the present futurate expresses a strong immediate connotation. This apparently arises from the fact that such a high degree of certainty can be stated only about future that is not too remote from the present.

5.3.4.3 Present progressive tense

The present progressive denotes situations, usually activities that unfold from a point in the past into the future. In the following example, it is not clear when the situations started in the past and no endpoint is presented either: *She is wearing a lime green suit, carrying a dark blue handbag, white gloves, and a pale hat.* The situation need not take place at the exact moment of speaking but in a broader present time reference framework,

for instance: *I never read the classics or anything like that, and now I'm reading them.* The time framework can stretch into the distant future such as in *I am getting old*.

Present progressive futurate is often referred to as an expression of not-so-far future or near future (Aarts, 2011, p. 270). The situation is considered as an arrangement and plan on the part of a human agent. This use is not so aspectual as the situation is not regarded as unfolding over time. The progressive present futurate can often occur with verbs of motion (e.g., *go, come, leave*)[106]

Present progressive thus also refers to the future which is anticipated at present. Unlike *be going to*, the anticipation results from a present arrangement of the future event, action or state. Leech (2004, p. 61) defines the arrangement as a plan or programme: *She's getting married this spring.* The present progressive expressing futurality thus implies that an arrangement of the action has been made before the time of utterance.

Differences between *be going to* and present progressive

As intention also arises from the speaker's past and present willingness, decision and finally arrangement, the difference between the present progressive and *be going to* future is very similar and in some cases indistinguishable. Still, the two structures can place emphasis on different aspects of futurality (Leech, 2004, p. 62):

I'm going to take Mary out for dinner this evening.
I'm taking Mary out for dinner this evening.

While intention is a present state, a plan or programme must be predetermined in the past. So the intention can already be absent at the time of utterance. It also means that an arrangement of a plan or programme can be regretted afterwards. Leech (2006, p. 62) provides an example in which the present progressive instance is used as an excuse: *I'm sorry, I'd love to have a game of billiards with you, but I'm taking Mary out for dinner.*

In addition, arranging an event or action requires that more participants are involved. Leech calls this quality of the present progressive social nature. The social nature thus makes the tense unnatural and inappropriate for activities the speaker is to perform alone. In such cases, *be going to* is a more appropriate form, as the present progressive presupposes the action has been arranged by the speaker with others.

106 Progressive futurate expressing an arrangement in the past of a future situation seen retrospectively: *I was going Sunday night you see, but I'm not anymore.* According to Aarts (p. 270), the past progressive futurate is more common than the past futurate.

Arranged activities also tend to be realised in the near future. The present progressive is therefore accompanied by the aspect of imminence. But Leech (2004, p. 62) opposes that distant future remains possible: *When I grow up, I'm joining the police force.*

Analogously to *be going to*, the present progressive form does not require adverbial modification. But out of context, the present progressive form can be ambiguous between present and future interpretation: *I'm taking Mary out for a meal.* If no adverbial modifies it, it expresses near rather than distant future. Imminence can be made explicit by inserting *just* or *soon*.

Leech (2004, p. 62), Wekker (1967) and Dušková (1998, p. 230) claim that the present progressive form referring to the future occurs mostly with verbs of motion or with verbs signifying single events. Such verbs (as well as phasal verbs) contain the anticipatory aspect in their meaning: *The aeroplane is landing.* The use of *be going to* is not constrained to this category of verbs.

Arranging a plan or programme is a conscious activity that almost always requires human agency. Thus, the subject of the present progressive form is usually an animate (human) agent. *Be going to* is often used with non-agentive subjects: *It's going to rain.* Leech (2004, p. 63) opposes that non-agentive verbs can also occur in the present progressive form referring to the future if there is an external agent who arranged the plan. Thus the sentence *I'm getting a present tomorrow* is ambitious. *Get* can convey an agentive meaning 'to acquire' or a non-agentive meaning 'to obtain', which depends on who arranged the giving of the present. Unlike *be going to*, the present progressive form is not used with verbs that are not compatible with the progressive aspect.

5.3.5 Be to

The phrase *to be to* is always tensed and cannot be preceded by other auxiliary verbs. The phrase can express the deontic meanings of obligation and necessity. At the same time, it can be used to express future arrangements and plans. The modal and futural meaning overlap and the phrase can be vague in terms of its modal and futural interpretations: *Judges are to take far less account of the offender's past record. The peoples of Europe are not to be formally consulted at any point by referendum or otherwise.*

The former sentence can be interpreted as follows: 'judges must take far less account of the offender's past record', or 'judges will be taking far less account of the

offender's past record'. The latter can mean that 'the constitution must not take place' or 'the constitution is not planned to take place'.[107] In terms of the level of formality, the *be to* structure occurs mainly in formal written style (Leech, 2004, p. 70, p. 104).

It expresses future resulting from a plan or decree by some authority other than the subject of the sentence: *The president is to give his speech at 5 this afternoon. All children are to have a chance to attend a kindergarten.* Unlike the present futurate, it occurs without any time adverbials and lacks in the sense of certainty. According to Leech (2004, p. 70), **The new play is staged at the Century Theatre next week* is therefore inappropriate.

Besides the formal written style, the *be to* expression occurs in newspapers to convey a plan for the future. It is often abbreviated to *to* + infinitive, especially in headlines: *American president to visit France*.[108]

The *be to* structure expresses a number of modal meanings.

- *Nowadays no such concentrations of geese are to be found on Rockliffe Marsh.* (*~ can*)
- *What is to be done then?* (*~ should*)
- *It is to be hoped that the UN will re-establish its authority.* (*~ be appropriate*)

In if-clauses, *be to* expresses purpose or goal which is appropriate to be achieved[109]: *If we are to win the competition, we must start training now.* (Leech, 2004, p. 104) Leech claims that the meaning is similar to *In order to win the competition* or *If we are going to (i.e., intend to) win the competition*.

5.3.6 Be about to and be on the point/verge of

The forms of *be about to* and *be on the point/verge of* appear to be rather rare in present-day English.[110] Leech (2004, p. 59) considers *be going to*, *be about to* and *be on the point/verge of* as near synonyms, especially in terms of immediateness they convey.

Be about to expresses greater immediacy than *be going to*. *Be going to* becomes a synonym for *be about to* if it occurs with adverbials of imminent future: *I am about to touch you. Don't be afraid.* ~ I am going to touch you right now.

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107 The phrase can also express arrangements in the past and is thus an expression of the future in the past: *And these buildings were to be the home of Ordnance Survey for the next one hundred years.*

108 *Was/were to* + infinitive expresses a plan in the past or factual future-in-the-past: The party was to take place at Brighton.

109 *Was/were to* + infinitive in if clauses also conveys hypothetical future.

110 Berglund (2005, p. 20) claims that in the British national Corpus there are about 0.15 instances of *be about to* in the present tense per million words, but 245 instances of *will*).

5.4 LEXICAL FUTURALITY

Besides these grammatical means, other grammarians also distinguish lexical expressions[111] of futurality, modality and aspectuality (Aarts, 2011, p. 272): "Futurality, modality and aspectuality can be expressed by the inherent meaning of verbs and other parts of speech and their complements."

Verbs and their dependents can express various situations themselves. This phenomenon is referred to as situation or lexical aspect. They can express states as well as occurrences. States are unbounded, having no beginning or end, and are internally undifferentiated (e.g., *to exist, to be*). By contrast, occurrences express dynamic situations. They can be achievements, which are punctual, and processes, which have duration: *I spotted a fox in the garden* (occurrence - achievement). Processes can also be classified into activities which have no internal end-point and accomplishments which have an internal end-point:

They are watching football. (occurrence – process - activity)
He is writing a text message. (occurrence – process - accomplishment)

Among other aspectualisers, i.e., aspectual lexical verbs, belong verbs referring to phases or stages of events and activities (*to begin, to cease, to continue, discontinue, finish, keep, proceed, quit, start* and *stop*): *Flowers continued to arrive at Downing Street this morning.* Aarts (2011, p. 305) strictly distinguishes means of lexical modality/futurality as follows:

- Nouns
- Adjectives
- Verbs

All these parts of speech are able to create, trigger and govern a modal/futural context.

5.4.1 Nouns

Certain nouns can create a context in which intention, insistence and other modalities are presupposed and can be implied. These nouns can thus be followed by modal/futural verbs: *So I drew the inference that the intention was that the media should reproduce the programme.*

111 Instances of modality in the professional economic context will only be exemplified and enumerated in our corpus-based study to demonstrate the various futural microfunctions. Profound analysis of lexical futurality exceeds the scope of the dissertation.

In this clause, *be* is governed by the modal insistence and the context of should is triggered by intention. Similarly the noun *wish* creates a modal/futural context for the subjunctive clause: *We respect the judge's wishes that we not raise the temperature further.*

5.4.2 Adjectives

Adjectives create modal/futural context to varying degrees. It always depends on how the writer or speaker views the situation expressed by the complement (lexical verb). Examples of modal/futural adjectives are *able, advisable, anxious, bound, concerned, crucial, desirable, essential, fitting, imperative, important, likely, necessary, possible, supposed, sure, vital* and *willing* (Aarts, 2011, p. 306):

> *Survivors are likely to experience adverse physical and psychological effects.*
> *It would be desirable to have as much analysis as possible done automatically.*

According to Aarts (ibid), these situations are viewed as non-actualised. They presuppose and imply potential situations in the future. Mandative *should* or mandative subjunctive clause often follow a governing adjective:

> *It is desirable that the robot should be deflected when it is kicked so that the cow is not harmed.*
> *It is imperative that a new maturity be achieved in domestic and international communications.*

5.4.3 Verbs

Verbs expressing futural/modal meaning comprise *advise, intend, propose, recommend, require, suggest* and *wish*. These verbs can be complemented with a direct object, mandative *should* or a mandative subjunctive clause: *We intend that this bank should provide stimulus for private investment in Eastern Europe.*

Similarly, the verb *have to* can be classified as a modal lexical verb taking inflectional endings and to-infinitive clauses as complement. Unlike *must*, the use of the verb implies that the obligation is imposed by someone other than the speaker. *Have to* expresses dynamic modality: *Twenty babies have been born overnight and she has to check they are all healthy. Have to* is used like *must* to express epistemic modality: *It has to be true; they must be putting something in the water.*

Aarts (2011, p. 308) classifies the phrase *be going to* into the group of modal/futural lexical verbs. Other authors admit that the lexical meaning of the verb *go* can hardly be derived from the meaning of the idiomatic combination. We will thus consider this phrase as a core expression of futurality.

5.5 NON-FINITE VERB FORMS[112]

Non-finite verb forms, such as the infinitive, the participle or the gerund can refer to the future. The matrix time is specified by the superordinate structure or an explicit adjunct of time. Aarts (2011, p. 264) gives the following example: *The Iraqis aim to have shot down fourteen aircraft by the time the war is over.*

The perfect infinitive refers to what grammarians call past future. Similarly, futurality and aspectuality can be expressed by means of a modal/futural lexical verb and appropriate non-finite verb forms. These forms are used even in intermediate ESP textbooks: *Do you want to be doing the same job in five years' time?* (New International Express Intermediate) *Want* creates a modal context (wish, willingness, intention) and the futurality and progressivity are realised by means of the present progressive infinitive. Futurality is explicitly marked by a future adjunct.

5.6 FUTURALITY AND EXTERNAL FACTORS

Besides the internal factors that affect the use and interpretation of futural construction (Wekker, 1976), (Mikuláš, 2007), there are external ones that can make the author prioritise a particular futural structure.

5.6.1 Futurality and frequency

It has been shown above that expressions of futurality differ in frequence of occurrence. Leech (2004, p. 69) defines the following order of frequency:

1) *will* + infinitive
2) subordinate future simple present

112 Hoffmannová (1983, p. 84) asserts that non-finite verb forms uare used to condense the distribution of temporal reference in a text. Thus, the rate of information load can be modified to increase the overall time-space dynamism of the text.

3) *be going to* + infinitive
4) present progressive and present simple futurate
5) *will* + progressive infinitive

Some of the expressions of futurality thus seem to be preferred than others. In addition, the frequency of some structures depends on its use. For instance, the present simple tense is frequent as a means of conveying subordinate futurality. Paradoxically, the second most frequent futural construction is a present form.[113]

Leech (2004, p. 69) also claims that the frequency factor is not stable. The frequency of some expressions is increasing. For instance, *will* + progressive infinitive is becoming more frequent.

5.6.2 Futurality and medium

The occurrence of the expressions of futurality varies substantially between written and spoken texts. The frequency of the expressions with respect to the medium was analysed in Biber et al. (1999). Some of the results are applicable to futural constructions.

For instance, Biber et al. (ibid) declare that modal and semi-modal verbs and structures (including *be going to, be about to, be (due) to*) tend to be most common in conversation. The authors assert that semi-modals (including *be going to*) are far more common in conversation than what the authors call "written expository registers". Biber et al. explicitly exemplify the frequency of *be going to*: "the semi-modal *be going to* is a common way of marking future time in conversation (and fictional dialogue), but is rarely used in written exposition" (1999, p. 490). The same conclusions were drawn by Palmer (1988, p. 38): "forms with *be going to* are very common in colloquial speech". Unlike Biber et al., Allen (1974) considers the *be going to* structure as one of the most common ways of expressing futurality in both spoken and written English.

Berglund (2005) uses the LOB (Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen Corpus of British English), FLOB (Freiburg – LOB Corpus of British English), LLC (London-Lund Corpus) as well as NBC (British National Corpus) to analyse the frequency of futurality expressions. Here are some of his findings:

113 The frequent use of the subordinate present simple future can result in interference as there is no such present counterpart in Czech.

- Expressions of futurality are more frequent in spoken than in written language. The frequency per million words in the written corpora varies between 3,088 (FLOB) to 3,362 (LOB).
- *Be going to* is used in only 5% of all cases in the written corpora, less than any other expression. *Gonna* is rarely found in the written corpora. As a matter of fact, it is almost exclusively found in the spoken corpora but to a varying degree. Both *be going to* and *gonna* prevail in spoken texts considerably. In the spoken corpora, 20 – 26% of the expressions of futurality are *be going to* or *gonna* in comparison with 5% in written texts.
- The proportion of *will* is considerably smaller in the spoken than in the written corpora while the proportion of *be going to* is larger. The proportion of *will*, *'ll* or *shall* accounts for 85 % in the written corpora and just over 70 % in the spoken.
- Contracted forms of the expressions are particularly frequent in speech.
- The proportion of *shall* in the spoken and written corpora does not prove any consistent or significant difference. The expression is used most frequently in the written corpus (LOB: 11%) followed by the spoken (LLC: 8%, FLOB: 6%). The difference appears to be fairly slight, but shows that *shall* is more frequent in the written corpora.
- Both *be going to* and *'ll* are frequent in contexts similar to spoken language (for instance quotes, dialogues and reported speech). This corresponds to our findings (Mikuláš, 2007). Berglund (2005, p. 76) analysed the use of futural expression in the quoted context. *Be going to* appears to be infrequent in most written text categories, especially *gonna* can hardly be found in contexts other than speech-related. The analysis proved that the vast majority of *'ll*, *shall* and *be going to* appear in quoted context. *Will* in quoted context is much less frequent. Contracted forms are used out of quoted context if the author attempts to make the text more reader-oriented through a conversational phrase.
- *Shall* occurs in quoted context frequently together with *'ll*. However, *'ll* is typical of spoken texts in which *shall* is rather rare. Berglund explains that *shall* is a more formal expression of futurality and is thus felt to be more assertive. In addition, *shall* is context- and author-specific. It occurs more frequently in particular authors' texts and with some topics only.
- *Be going to* is not so frequent in quoted context as *'ll* and *shall*, but more frequent than *will*. It occurs in a spoken rather than written text. The difference is not as significant as for *'ll*. Unlike other authors, Berglund (ibid) thus concludes that *be going to* is not so characteristic of spoken language. In any case, *be going to* is also more sensitive to the style and topic of single texts. The proportion of quoted instances is substantially higher in the imaginative text categories than in the informative text categories, i.e., *be going to* is more frequent in the fictional hyper-category[114].

Leech (2004, p. 69) asserts that *be going to*, the present progressive and *will* + progressive infinitive occur more in speech than in writing.

114 This corresponds to our findings presented in Mikuláš (2007).

5.6.3 Futurality and text category

The variation of futural expressions among different text categories appears to be more substantial than between a written and spoken corpus. Berlung (ibid) defines the term 'text category' as "a generic term to represent all the units of text that are smaller than the corpora they are part of" (2005, p. 85)[115]. Berglund (2005, p. 86) also classifies text categories into hyper-categories (informative and imaginative) and fifteen genres (press: reportage; press: editorial; press: reviews; religion; skills, trades and hobbies; popular lore; belle lettres, biography; miscellaneous; learners and scientific writing; general fiction; mystery and detective; science fiction; adventure and western; romance and love story; humour).

Contrary to the system proposed by Berglund, the BNC contains two parts (written and spoken), which are divided into components and domains.

Part	Written	Spoken	
Components		Context-governed	Demographically-sampled
Domains	▪ imaginative ▪ natural science ▪ applied science ▪ social science ▪ world affairs ▪ commerce ▪ arts ▪ belief and thought ▪ leisure ▪ unclassified	▪ leisure ▪ business ▪ educational ▪ institutional	

Table 2: Classification of texts in BNC

Berglund (ibid) shows that the expressions of futurality occur with different frequencies between different corpora as well as different text categories within one particular corpus. Generally speaking, expressions of futurality prevail in the imaginative hypercategory than in the informative category[116]. This does not necessarily mean that the same trend holds for the genres of the hyper-categories. In addition, there is a substantial

115 Hereinafter, we will also use this term as an umbrella term for the various categories included in our corpus-based study. The text category includes aspects of both the discourse and the register, and its definition avoids all the discrepancies and inconsistencies of text categorisations by particular theoreticians. In addition, the term text category is used by various national and international corpora, which will make it possible to compare the results of our corpus-based study with other relevant data.

116 Similar results were found between literary and technical texts (from the domain of social sciences) in Mikuláš (2007).

difference between hyper-categories regarding the proportion of the expressions of futurality. A significant consistency in terms of the frequency rates of the futural expressions was detected: "Genres that contain a proportionally large number of expressions of futurality in one corpus are often found to have a relatively high frequency in the other corpora as well." (Berglund, 2005, p. 88). Lower frequencies of futural expressions are characteristic of press reviews and learnt and scientific writings. On the contrary, futural expressions are frequent in press editorials and miscellaneous government and official documents.

It proves to be true that the selection of appropriate futural expressions vary not only between hyper-categories but also all the genres. Berglund (2005, p. 89) provides an overview of frequencies distributed among the genres in the Brown, LOB and FLOB corpora.

BROWN	**Number of FUT**	***will***	***'ll***	***shall***	***going to***	***gonna***	**relative freq/2,000 words**
A Press: reportage	439	89%	8%	1%	2%	0%	10.0
B Press: editorial	278	86%	2%	7%	6%	0%	10.3
C Press: reviews	68	93%	1%	3%	3%	0%	4.0
D Religion	83	77%	1%	20%	1%	0%	4.9
E Skills and hobbies	320	86%	11%	2%	2%	0%	8.9
F Popular lore	205	82%	8%	6%	4%	0%	4.3
G Belle lettres,	285	83%	5%	11%	1%	0%	3.8
H Miscellaneous	340	71%	0%	29%	0%	0%	11.3
J Learned	379	88%	1%	11%	0%	0%	4.7
Informative	**2397**	**84%**	**4%**	**10%**	**2%**	**0%**	6.4
K General fiction	109	55%	30%	1%	13%	1%	3.8
L Mystery fiction	149	24%	56%	3%	17%	0%	6.2
M Science fiction	37	49%	30%	8%	14%	0%	6.2
N Adventure fiction	188	34%	48%	6%	9%	3%	6.5
P Romance	187	34%	\51%	2%	11%	2%	6.4
R Humour	35	57%	26%	6%	11%	0%	3.9
Imaginative	**705**	**37%**	**46%**	**4%**	**12%**	**2%**	5.6
TOTAL	3,102	73%	14%	8%	4%	0%	6.2

Table 3: Distribution of futural expressions in Brown Corpora

LOB	Number of FUT	*will*	*'ll*	*shall*	*going to*	*gonna*	relative freq/2,000 words
A Press: reportage	348	90%	3%	4%	3%	0%	7.9
B Press: editorial	260	92%	1%	3%	4%	0%	9.6
C Press: reviews	84	87%	5%	5%	4%	0%	4.9
D Religion	136	74%	4%	18%	4%	0%	8.0
E Skills and hobbies	345	91%	1%	4%	3%	0%	9.1
F Popular lore	236	84%	7%	3%	6%	0%	5.4
G Belle lettres,	248	83%	3%	10%	4%	0%	3.2
H Miscellaneous	256	61%	0%	37%	2%	0%	8.5
J Learned	364	82%	0%	16%	1%	0%	4.6
Informative	**2,277**	**83%**	**2%**	**11%**	**3%**	**0%**	**6.1**
K General fiction	205	47%	32%	13%	8%	0%	7.1
L Mystery fiction	161	32%	48%	7%	12%	0%	6.7
M Science fiction	36	56%	28%	3%	14%	0%	6.0
N Adventure fiction	280	29%	56%	5%	9%	1%	9.7
P Romance	341	38%	40%	12%	9%	0%	11.8
R Humour	62	74%	18%	5%	3%	0%	6.9
Imaginative	**1,085**	**39%**	**42%**	**9%**	**9%**	**0%**	**8.6**
TOTAL	3,362	69%	15%	11%	5%	0%	6.7

Table 4: Distribution of futural expressions in LOB corpora

In all the corpora, the proportions of *will* are substantially higher in the informative hyper-category than in the imaginative. As a matter of fact, all informative genres have larger proportions of *will* than any imaginative genre. *Will* thus appears to be a specific feature of the informative hyper-category. The occurrence of '*ll* is reversed in comparison with *will*. *'ll* is a characteristic feature of the imaginative hyper-category and its genres as all imaginative genres contain a substantially higher proportion of the structure than any other informative genres. Analogously, *be going to* is more frequent in the imaginative hyper-category in comparison with the informative. *Be going to* is fairly frequent only in four informative genres (namely press reviews). The use of the expression *shall* is used to a similar extent in most informative as well as imaginative genres. But for some genres, it is more characteristic, namely religion and learned.

The variation between the categories of texts is also significant. It is assumed that genres are similar to a certain extent with regard to the topics dealt with in the texts. If the topics are similar, the patterns of the use of futural constructions will also be similar. Berglund (2005, p. 93) thus claims that it is important to select texts on equivalent topics.

The informative hyper-category contains a great variety of texts, ranging from press to academic writing. The proportion of *will* is fairly high, amounting to 83 % in LOB and 87 % in FLOB. On the contrary, the proportion of *be going to* is very low, accounting for

3% in both the corpora. *'ll* is the least frequent construction, 2% in LOB and 4% in FLOB. *Shall* is rather frequent amounting to 11% in LOB and 6% in FLOB.

The research presented by Berglund (2005, p. 94) shows that genres with a certain frequency of futural constructions in one corpus can have a higher frequency of the expressions in other corpora. The proportion of futurality occurrence thus appears to be invariant throughout genres. The same does not apply for the particular expressions. A high proportion of *will* in a genre of one corpus does not have to be equal or similar to its proportion of the same genre in another corpus. The differences between informative genres is considerably lower than between imaginative genres.

The differences between corpora in case of *shall* are considerable. The variation is also great between hypercategories and genres. *Shall* reaches the highest proportions in four genres: religion, belle letters, miscellaneous and learned. Thus, *shall* appears to occur more frequently in particular genres. In addition, it is not distributed equally across them, but is found in certain kinds of texts. As *shall* is more formal, it occurs in more formal texts related to law. It conveys not only futurality, but also modality, namely a sense of obligation (which explains its higher frequency in legal texts).

Be going to comprises only 3 % of the expressions of futurality in the informative hyper-category[117]. The variability among genres is significant. It ranges from 0% in religion to 21% in press reviews, and from 1% in the learned genre to 6% in the popular lore. According to Berglund (2005, p. 95), the raw frequency of *be going to* is very low. It exceeds 20 instances in one genre only, which is press reportage in the FLOB. The absolute frequency is under 10 in 11 of the 18 genres. Berglund (ibid) thus claims that *be going to* is not used in the informative hyper-category to any greater extent. The expression *gonna* occurs only once in the hyper-category.

The proportion of *will* in the imaginative hyper-category accounts for 50 % of that in the informative hyper-category. *'ll* is found as frequently as *will* in the imaginative hyper-category. The variation of *'ll* among imaginative genres is considerable, ranging from 24 % in humour to 45 % in mystery or 56 % in romance. There exists no informative genre amounting to such a high proportion. Berglund (2005, p. 96) thus confirms that contracted forms are more frequent in texts including features of spoken discourse (fiction texts with dialogues). It is therefore obvious that *'ll* is more typical of particular genres in comparison with *will* or *be going to*.

117 Mikuláš (2007) declares a much lower occurrence of *be going to* in learned texts of social sciences.

Shall constitutes approximately 7% of the expressions of futurality in the imaginative category. It frequently occurs in stories set in history (genre of romance). So *shall* can be seen as a means of imitating older language. In addition, *shall* appears to be rather rare. In 126 imaginative texts there are only 55 instances of *shall* in FLOB. It gives only 0.44 occurrences per a text. The variability of *shall* is different from all the other expressions of futurality. It occurs primarily in some genres, some texts and some authors.

Be going to is used more in the imaginative genres than the informative ones. It accounts from 9 % to 11 % of all cases. In the imaginative genres, *be going to* is even more variable, from 3 % to 14 % in LOB and from 7 % to 18 % in FLOB. The construction varies with hyper-category. The informative genre of press reviews in FLOB amounts to the proportion of imaginative genres. *Be going to* is more frequent in spoken language and in quotes.[118] But outside quotes, the proportion of the instances is lower in the imaginative hyper-category than in the informative category. It thus proves that *be going to* is not exclusively speech-related.

In comparison with *be going to*, *gonna* appears to be rare according to the BNC. There are only 546 instances of *gonna* per 19,000 instances of *be going to*. *Gonna* is found mainly in Arts and Imaginative domains. The occurrence of *be going to* varies greatly across the domains of BNC.

Domain	No. of words	*gonna*		*going to*	
		Raw frequency	Frequency pmw	Raw frequency	Frequency pmw
Imaginative	19,664,309	322	16.4	11,347	577
Arts	7,014,792	131	18.6	1,407	200.5
Leisure	8,991,792	41	4.5	1,775	197,4
Belief and thought	3,035,896	2	0.6	322	106
Commerce and finance	6,668,357	0	0	697	104.5
Social science	12,186,378	30	2.4	1,253	102.8
Applied science	7,341,375	8	1	731	99.5
World affairs	15,243,341	8	0.5	1,297	85
Natural and pure science	3,746,901	0	0	137	36.5
Total	83,893,089	542	6.4	18,966	226

Table 5: Distribution of be going to and gonna in various domains

Be going to is least frequent in Natural and pure scientific texts, but occurs in Commerce and finance. *Gonna* is not found in the two domains at all. It is most frequent in

118 This tendency has also been attested in literary texts by Mikuláš (2007).

the Arts texts, especially those related to modern music (in quotes from songs or in titles of songs and recordings). Berglund (2005, p. 99) claims that it is specific to individual texts within the domain. No instances of *gonna* and just a few instances of *be going to* were found in Natural and pure science. It is also rare in other scientific domains, Applied science and Social science, as well as in the domains Belief and thought and Commerce and finance. The proportion of both *be going to* and *gonna* in the formal and informal text categories is similar, but *gonna* is more frequent in the informal ones. There is only little variation of the two between the monologue and dialogue texts.

But Berglund (ibid) emphasises that the text categories among the corpora differ as well as the text sizes and sampling frames. Only general tendencies can be deduced and more specific research needs to be conducted to reveal the natural relations and regularities of the particular categories and genres.

5.6.4 Futurality and region

Berglund (1997) also concludes that "the variation [of the expressions of futurality] is greater between the Informative and the Imaginative hyper-category than between the corpora of different regional varieties. *Will* and *shall* occur proportionally more in the Informative hyper-categories, while the proportions of *'ll* and *be going to* are larger in the Imaginative hyper-categories. the expressions of futurality are more frequent in the spoken corpus, *will* is more frequent in the written corpus while *'ll* and *be going to* are used more in the spoken than in the written corpus. The proportions of the expressions in the spoken corpus are more similar to those in the Imaginative hyper-category than to those in the Informative texts." The hyper-category and its genres thus seem to be a more significant factor than the regional specifics of the use of futural expressions.

5.6.5 Futurality and speaker's social status

The British National Corpus contains information about the social background of the text authors. The following graph shows the demographically sampled component of the BNC:

Demographically Sampled (DS)						
	Raw frequency	***will***	***'ll***	***shall***	***going to***	***gonna***
AB top or middle management, administrative or professional	5824	21%	46% -	5% +	9% +	18%
C1 junior management, supervisory or clerical	4251	21%	50% +	4%	6% +	19% -
C2 skilled manual	5055	23%	46% -	4%	4%	23% +
DE semi-skilled or unskilled	2279	21%	53%	3%	3%	19%
Total	17409	3792	8382	693	1073	3469

Table 6: Demographical distribution of futural expressions

It can be deduced that *shall* is used more by the AB category of authors (with higher social status). Still, *shall* varies the least with the social status.

The same holds for *be going to*. It also varies with social groups. It is smaller for the second highest group of junior management (C1) and the third group of skilled manual (C2). *Gonna* is most frequent with skilled manual (C2), semi-skilled or unskilled workers (DE).

On the basis of the above statistics, Berglund (2005, p. 115) thus concludes that "the education factor is one that can be expected to concur to a great extent with other factors. Assuming that the social class classification is based on occupation, it is reasonable to presume that education concurs with social class to a certain extent."

The variation of *be going to* and *gonna* is also significant with respect to the age group. While older speakers tend to favour the full form *be going to*, *gonna* is prioritised by younger speakers.

5.6.6 The variation of futurality in time

Berglund (2000) also researched how the variation of futural expressions varies in time. The variation between the LOB (earlier) and the FLOB (later) corpora is lower than the variation between the hyper-categories in both the corpora. The hyper-category and its genres thus seem to be a more significant factor than the diachronic perspective.

5.7 CZECH EXPRESSIONS OF FUTURALITY AS A SOURCE OF INTERFERENCE

5.7.1 Futurality as a notional category of temporality

As thinking is inseparable from language, the psychological view of temporality is reflected in the grammatical category of tense, which is very subjective. Language users express the temporality of an action (past, present, future) not only according to the chronological relation of the actions to the moment of the communicative act and to other actions or states, but also according to their egocentric view of the content and its consequences in reality (Bláha, 2008). We can thus distinguish tense pointing to a moment or to an interval. Tense as a moment can be interpreted absolutely, i.e., it can reflect the time axis, but time as an interval reflects the relations between more moments or intervals of time.

Consequently, the statement *I'm going to Prague* can refer to present time (*I'm on the way to Prague*) or to the future time (plan). It means that every proposition reflects pragmatic (illocutionary) aspects. But there is no one-to-one correspondence between illocutionary acts across two different languages. The same sentence in Czech (*Jedu do Prahy*) can convey the same meaning referring to the present and future time as it has in English, but it can also express historic present.

The linguistic category of tense does not obviously reflect the physical or psychological notion of time. Various languages have different numbers of tense structures (e.g, 8 forms in Greek, 6 forms in Latin, 8 forms in Bulgarian, 9 forms in Macedonian). The reflection of time depends on the specific conditions and characteristics of languages, arising from the linguistic means of the particular language. It is not only verb forms, but also adverbials and syntactic constructions that differ significantly among languages.

Bláha (ibid) claims that the poor temporal system in Czech (past, present and future form) follows from the lexical feature of aspect. Temporality and aspect co-exist in lexical items expressing complexity and incompleteness of an action. But such items also express singularity as well as repetition of actions.

5.7.2 Futurality in relation to the moment of communication act

The category of temporality reflects the objective time from the subjective view of language users (psychological time). Time can also be viewed with respect to the moment of the communication act or another reference point. Psychological future expresses the subjective transformation of the objective subsequence of actions, i.e., it reflects the state following the moment of the communication act. It is the action or state that is only intended or planned, which means it has not been realised yet. Because by means of future tenses speakers express their expectations, futurality is always related to the category of modality.

Štícha et al. (2013, p. 437) also define tense as a means orienting the time of state or action. The orientation can be related to the time of communication, namely the production of the utterance, which is called absolute (basic, objective). But the orientation can also be related to the time of another action or state, which is referred to as relative. Štícha et al. (ibid) consider the present moment the centre of the time sequence. Futurality refers to the time coming after the centre. The absolute temporal relation can only be expressed by means of indicative verb forms. The relative time expresses either concurrence or sequence of actions or states. Relativity is realised either by means of transgressives or through the distribution of tenses in a text. Štícha et al. (2013, p. 437) exemplify as follows: *Trošku poposedával, současně dočetl a dokouřil, pak zmáčkl oharek.* It shows that tense and aspect are mutually interrelated with the category of time relativity.

In Czech, the relation of the future form with the realisation of the communication act can be rather blurred. The synthetic form of the verb *'uvařím'* indicates completeness of the action in the future explicitly. But implicitly, it presupposes a kind of a preparatory stage that must be included in the communicative act. Sometimes it can also precede the act (*'We started the act of cooking an hour ago.'*). The analytical form *'budu vařit'* and the synthetic imperfect future form *'ponesu'* signal a time span between the communication act and the action. On the other hand, it is not clear if the action is taking place during the communication act, or if the action has started before.

5.7.3 Futurality in relation to the experience of the communicants

The time axis can be divided into an empirical and a non-empirical part. While the empirical segment includes past and present time, the non-empirical comprises futurality. The non-empirical character of futurality stands in contrast with the empirical past, which has taken place, been lived through and experienced. The non-empirical feature of the future can also be found in other structures such as the imperative (*Do it!*) or in constructions expressing wishes (*May you be happy!*). The appellative function of these forms indicates that futurality cannot be separated from modality.

5.7.4 Modality and futurality

Futurality therefore includes actions or states that are more or less certain and expected to happen (with some degree of probability). This hypothetical feature can be suppressed in case the future action is considered definite by the speaker. Consequently, it is expressed by means of the present tense (*Zítra v pět mám schůzku s vedoucím*).[119]

The hypothetical aspect of futurality in Czech makes other expressions of modality co-occur with future forms. Analytical future form is used for present actions to express uncertainty of the speaker (*To bude listonoš*). In some cases, future form is used for the speaker's effort to influence somebody's behaviour (*Budeš mlčet!*), or the speaker's anger about the present state (*On se mi tu bude válet v botech na gauči!*). Analytical future is also used if the speaker wants to change the state, especially if the future form refers to a further future moment distant from the present state (*Jak dlouho to ještě budeš dělat?,* i.e., *Chci, abys nyní přestal*). In this case, the speaker wants the present state not to be identical with the state preceding my speech.

It is obvious that modality underlies futurality as the subjective and objective view of temporal relations is pervasive. Bláha (2008, p. 22) thus considers these two categories as amalgamating. Futurality can simply be perceived as possibility. Thus, temporality and

119 This form corresponds to English intended *I'm meeting my boss at 5 tomorrow* or unintended *I'll be meeting my boss at five tomorrow.* The Czech form is neutral with respect to intentionality.

epistemic modality co-occur in a number of futurality expressions even in the Czech language.[120]

5.7.5 Futurality as a grammatical category

Grammatical category of temporality relates the time of facts that are being said to the time of the communicative act or another relevant point. It has therefore primarily a deictic function even though the relation between the facts and the communicative act is not the only temporal relation expressed. Bláha (2008, p. 24) quotes Jespersen (1958, p. 300) and claims that various languages express a large variety of temporal relations, but regardless of the language they can be distributed among the following categories:

- Pre-preterite
- Preterite
- Post-preterite
- Present
- Pre-future
- Future
- Post-future

Czech past, present and future tenses correspond to preterite, present and future forms in Jespersen's classification. The Czech language therefore does not contain tenses to express the relations of inclusion and continuousness. Bláha (2008, p. 25) claims that these extra relations can be expressed by means of the simple temporal forms and lexical aspect and gives the following examples[121]: *Když jsme přijeli, seděli jsme s nimi ještě půl druhé hodinky dole v kuchyni* and *Než zajdeš k Pavlovi, ještě si to pořádně srovnej v hlavě.*

Štícha (2013, p. 439) claims that the future tense in Czech can only be formed by imperfective verbs. Such future forms are analytic, consisting of *být* and the infinitive of a full verb: *budu prosit, budeš prosit, bude prosit*. The synthetic form is possible with verbs with the initial *po-* prefix expressing motion, a change of state or duration: *pojede, půjde, poletí, popluje, poteče, ponese, povede, poroste, pokvete, potáhne se*. Some verbs can create both the forms: *Chtějí dostat přístroj, který jim bude vést účetnictví* and *Přehledné hospodaření by měla zajistit také nová firma, která povede účetnictví.*

120 English regards future actions as possible, desired or planned to a great extent. Various expressions of futurality in English can convey different degrees of modal colouring. For example, in weather forecasts, which are always hypothetical, the form of *will* is used instead of the *be going to* structure, which expresses a higher degree of certainty. Still, there are doubts about the existence of the morphological future in English (some authors state modality and futurality can be well distinguished, Dušková, 1994, p.228).
121 In English, perferct or progressive non-finite verb forms are used to express these aspects of temporality.

Perfective verbs in Czech do not have any future forms. They use present forms to convey futurality. Unlike Bláha (2008), Štícha (2013) asserts that future forms lose their futural meaning when the form is used to express politeness, radical attitudes (commands, prohibitions and objections) or uncertainty: *Budu vás prosit, abyste mi ukázali své tašky, Tohle bude určitě slanina a rajčata* and *Mě nebudeš urážet!*

The temporal relations can also be expressed by various syntactic means, such as transgressives. While Czech transgressives are considered obsolete and rare as a consequence, transgressives in English represent a frequent grammatical expression of relative futurality.

Bláha distinguishes the following temporal relations of futurality identifiable in Czech:

- Futurality as continuousness/duration
- Futurality as a point
- Complex futurity
- Futurality as (un)certainty
- Futurality as necessity, possibility and will

5.7.5.1 Futurality as Continuousness/Duration

Futurality as duration is expressed by means of imperfective verbs (*e.g., ponesu, budu kupovat*). Verbs like *ponesu* can be misleading because verbal prefixes usually make the meaning perfective. The prefix *po-* can therefore be viewed as a temporal and spatial grammatical morpheme (Bláha, p. 37). In addition, the form *půjdu* is the only future form of the verb *jít*. We thus call such verbs primary determinative verbs. The class of such verbs is based on their semantic features. It includes imperfective verbs like *jít, jet, nést, vést, vézt, běžet, letět, hnát, táhnout, vláčet* and *lézt,* which express the notion of linear movement in space (and its modifications), verbs of duration and verbs expressing changes of states[122]. Some verbs (e.g., *frčet, mazat, vlát*) can form both synthetic and analytic forms, and we thus call them secondary determinative. The distribution of synthetic and analytic forms is also based on a stylistic aspect for synthetic forms of secondary determinative verbs are more expressive than their analytic forms.

Primary determinative verbs form correlative pairs with other imperfective forms that are not determinative: *nést – nosit, vést – vozit, běžet – běhat, letět - létat*. The difference between the counterparts is based on the spatial dimension of the motions. The

122 In Czech, preference of a particular future form is determined by lexical aspectuality more significantly than in English.

verbs such as *nést, vést, běžet, letět* express linear motion aimed at a particular destination, the other forms do not express any particular direction at all.

Besides verbs of elementary motional relations *(jít-chodit, nést-nosit),* there are other verbs that convey specialised motional meanings such as *hnát-honit*, *táhnout – tahat*. The former will be referred to as core correlatives, the latter as peripheral correlatives.

Secondary determinatives that are not correlatives can also form the *po-* future if they convey linear motion: *plout – popluji, růst – porostu*. In addition, they form analytic future. The choice of analytic or synthetic form depends on the concept of a particular action, which can be perceived as both determinative and non-determinative.[123]

According to Bláha (2008, p. 52), nine pairs of correlatives can be identified, seven of which are core: *jít-chodit, jet-jezdit, běžet – běhat, letět – létat, nést – nosit, vézt – vozit, vést – vodit,* and two are peripheral: *hnát – honit, táhnout – tahat*.

Bláha (ibid) emphasises that the choice of an appropriate futural form depends on the semantics of verbs. The semantics is even more significant for the futural meaning than for the past meaning. For instance, the aspect of a verb determines whether the meaning of the verb will be present or future. The aspect plays a key role in the interpretation and it is thus both a lexical and a grammatical category. Still, it is not the only criterion that can determine the futural meaning of a verb. It is necessary to consider whether the verb is determinative or non- determinative. Besides the aspect, the determinism conveyed by a verb can thus be seen as another selective criterion of a futural form. The *po-* future constitutes a borderline between the determinative versus non-determinative and the perfective versus imperfective category. Verbs of linear motion that do not belong to the determinative class can still form analytic future: *Budeme cestovat do Brna vlakem.*

The difference between the synthetic (*Pocestujeme do Brna vlakem.*) and analytic future (*Budeme cestovat do Brna vlakem.*) depends on the degree of determinism that is to be expressed. Bláha (2008, p. 62) defines the determinative potential of a verb as the ability of a verb to be determinative, i.e., to form the synthetic *po-* future, or non-determinative, i.e., to form the analytic future; the two abilities are in an inverse relation to one another.

Primary determinative verbs can form analytic future if their meaning of linear motion vanishes: *Od září budu vést skautský oddíl.* The strongest primary determinative

123 Analogous correlative pairs with regard to their potential to express futurality cannot be identified in English.

verbs (*jít* and *jet*) cannot form analytic future in any case even if they do not express linear motion explicitly: *Na té poradě půjde beztak o nějakou hloupost*.

Verbs that can only form analytic future can also be classified into primary and secondary non-determinative verbs (Bláha, 2008, p. 64). Primary non-determinative verbs are correlative counterparts of primary determinatives (*chodit, jezdit, nosit, vodit*), and secondary non-determinative verbs are all the other verbs with no determinative potential.

In terms of the aspect, the synthetic *po-* future as well as the analytic future of primary determinative verbs are imperfective (*ponesu – budu nést*). The *po-* future therefore does not convey any particular aspectual qualities but determinism. Bláha (ibid) calls the *po-* future 'durative future'. While the non-determinative analytic future can express repetition of an action (which results from its non-determinative character), the synthetic *po-* future cannot express any repetition at all.[124]

Besides the synthetic-analytic dichotomy of primary determinative verbs, incomplete paradigm is another of their characteristic features. There exist only their present and imperative forms. Their negative imperative is formed by means of their non-determinative counterparts (*nechoď, nenos*). If the negative imperative of a determinative verb is used, it is marked by urgency and negative experience. Its emotional charge is therefore highly negative: *Nechoď mi zase do hospody*.

Bláha (2008, p. 71) claims that the imperative is a mode that refers to the future implicitly. The *po-* prefix of the primary determinative verbs is therefore redundant. Thus, the difference between the imperatives *pojď* and *jdi* cannot be interpreted on the basis of temporality. The imperative *pojď* corresponds to the English *come to me* (the speaker and the addressee have a common deictic centre), and the imperative *jdi* means *go* (usually away from the speaker; the deictic centres are different). The meaning of *po-* in the imperative weakens together with its determinative potential.

The congruence of analytic and synthetic future

The primary determinative verbs *jít* and *jet* can only form the synthetic future. Thus, the analysis of analytic future distribution is pointless. It is only their iterative counterparts (*chodit, jezdit*) that can express analytic future (*budu chodit, budu jezdit*). All the other determinatives can be used both in their synthetic and analytic forms. As

124 In English, repetition of an action can also be expressed by various means in accordance with lexical qualities of verbs. For instance, repetition of verbs of punctual actions is conveyed by means of their progressive form: *They were tapping at the door*.

mentioned above, the difference between the *po-* future of the determinative verbs and the analytic forms of their correlative non-determinative counterparts lies in the concept of motion. While *po-* future expresses a linear one-way motion (*půjdu, pojedu*), analytic forms convey undirected motion (*budu chodit, budu jezdit*).[125]

Another explanation can be provided with respect to the duration of the actions. The synthetic *po-* future is perceived as a shorter action (*poběžím*) rather than the analytic form (*budu běhat*). Therefore, analytic forms of *letět* or *běžet* are inappropriate as they do not convey a longer action such as the verbs *létat* and *běhat*. The analytic form can only be used if the meaning of the verb is devoid of any motional interpretation: *Od září budu vést účty jedné menší firmě.*

Analytic forms are rare with non-actual imperfective verbs such as *chodívat.* Bláha (2008, p. 93) claims that futurality almost excludes repetition of actions as everything in the future is more or less hypothetical and unreal and it therefore lacks in any accurate segmentation.

Bláha (2008, p. 99) states that analytic and synthetic futural forms are synonymous not only in terms of the aspect but also in most meanings, both primary and secondary. Their distribution only depends on the determinative nature of imperfective verbs. In addition, both the future forms can only be derived from imperfective verbs.

The differences between the synthetic *po-* future and the analytic future can thus be identified only in instances where both the forms co-exist (i.e., in the case of primary and secondary determinative verbs). The main difference follows from the dichotomy of actual and non-actual actions, events and states. While the synthetic form refers to actual meanings (*Obchod vám poroste*), the analytic form is non-actual[126] (*Až nade mnou bude růst tráva*). Still, the analytic future can also be related to a present moment: *Přece nebudeš plakat* (when a child is about to cry). Besides this feature of actuality, the difference also arises from the speaker's subjective point of view.

As mentioned above, the *po-* future is restricted to determinative verbs, i.e., to verbs whose meanings convey linear and spatial motion and direction. Where such a meaning is surpressed, analytic future is prioritised. The determinative potential is therefore a key criterion for a verb to form the *po-* future (*Své housle si ponesu sám.*) Where the meaning of a verb lacks in spatial and motional character, its ability to form the analytic future increases (*Od května budu vést účty jedné menší firmě.*) Yet, primary

125 In English, direction of motions is not delimited by futurality primarily.
126 In English, temporal actuality is expressed mainly through progressive forms of verbs.

determinative verbs can only form the synthetic *po-* future even in non-spatial meanings: *Ty tvoje hodinky půjdou vždycky napřed.*

The analytic future can also be used where the speaker tends to mark the verb with emphasis: *Neboj se, on se neztratí, já ho budu vést* or *Budu běžet úplně pomalu.* The analytic future form emphasises urgency and duration of an action. In addition, the overuse of the synthetic *po-* future with secondary determinatives can be an aspect of a speaker's idiolect.

As the analytic future mostly refers to non-empirical actions (analogously to English formal subjunctive forms in English conditional and wish clauses), it also conveys certain modal meanings. First, it expresses uncertainty and improbability. The analytic future can therefore co-occur and alternate with other modal means (modal particles and adverbials such as *možná,* and conditionals).[127] It can also be used as a means of tentativeness to accomplish politeness principles *Budu prosit váš občanský průkaz.*[128]

Another secondary meaning of the analytic future is characteristic, disposition and usualness: *O učení kluk nemá zájem, celý den se bude jen vrtat v nějakých motorech.* The analytic future that conveys usualness can also be found in general conditional clauses such as *Kdo krade, bude potrestán*, in which *who* is a synonym for *whoever*.[129] The function of the analytic future in general conditionals is to mark the chronological succession and mutual causality of the actions. The causality and chronological succession corresponds to the essential meaning of the future as a succession with respect to the initial (present) point.

Bláha (2008, p. 106) claims that omnitemporality (which he calls a gnomic function) always includes futurality. What is omnitemporal must always be true in the future. The *po-* future expresses characteristic disposition only rarely: *On ti to potáhne jak ten vůl celou cestu sám.* The gnomic function of the analytic future can be found in proverbs and sayings: *Žábu budeš po samém zlatě vodit – přece najde bláto.*

127 Future forms express uncertainty even in English: *They will be sleeping by now.*
128 The tentative use of future forms can also be identified in English: *I will have your ID card.* In addition, it can be expressed by the progressive aspect: *I am wondering if you could pass me your ID card.*
129 The same successive function holds for English futural constructions in a number of causal clauses:
The more you eat, the more you will put on weight.
If you eat too much, you will put on weight.
Disposition and characteristic can also be expressed in English by means of *will*:
Oil will float on water.

From the textual point of view, analytic future is used to structure texts temporally (internal time). For instance, it can mark actions taking place after actions expressed by the historic present.[130]

Synthetic and analytic future forms can express insistent warnings and orders. The analytic future is modalised considerably, but cannot combine with perfective verbs: *Ty se mi budeš smát do očí?* The speaker analyses the cause of their warning and threatens the addressee with a revenge. The threatening tone is often mitigated to convey a kind reprimand and a caring talk (Grepl et al., 2008): *Proto přece nebudeš plakat.* The meaning of appeal can also by conveyed by the synthetic *po-* future: *Ty mi půjdeš rovnou cestou přes záhonky?!* According to Bláha (2008, p. 108), the synthetic form is milder than the analytic form.

The appealing potential of futurality is realised in the imperative-indicative form: *Budeš mlčet?!* Similarly, the synthetic *po-* future can express a milder request: *Tak půjdeš už konečně do školy?* Emotionally charged propositions with analytic future forms are also irritations about somebody's attitude: *Bodejť, nebudu umět abecedu, když čtu z knihy!*, and wishes: *Že to bude Honza, řekni, že to bude Honza!*[131]

The synthetic *po-* future (imperfective) is not natural in such highly emotional and appealing propositions. If it is used in the above mentioned instances, its modal meaning is not so strong. But its mild modal tone proves that the *po-* future meanings and functions are more temporal than modal.

5.7.5.2 Futurality as a Point

The present form of perfective verbs can express futurality in Czech, which is a specific of some Slavic languages[132]. Unlike the analytic future (*budu kupovat*), the present form of perfective verbs (*koupím*) can express an action taking place at the time of speech. The interpretation depends on the context and the meaning of a particular verb. Some verbs simply imply a preparatory part involving the present moment: *Snažím se dost, tak snad zhubnu.*

130 The same function of the English retrospective *will* was described in Mikuláš (2007).
131 In English, wishes and desires are expressed primarily by the subjunctive: *If only it were John!* The present and the future form occur after verbs of hoping: *I hope it is / will be John.* Future *will* can be perceived redundant by native speakers. The prioritised present form can interfere with the Czech future form.
132 The absence of such a futural form in English can be a source of interference.

According to Bláha (2008, p. 112), the present form of perfective verbs conveys coloured future. It expresses stronger possibility and probability than the analytic future form. In addition, the present form of perfectives can never express current present. This inability results from the temporal perspective of a perfective action which takes place only at an infinitely small point in the time line. The point is the result of the action at the same time. Unlike imperfectives, perfective verbs are devoid of duration and continuousness. Only imperfective verbs are capable of involving the boundary between the past and the future. Bláha (2008, p. 117) thus suggests that the relation of the future forms with respect to the present moment can be as follows: *analytic future > po- future > the present of imperfective forms > the present moment*.

The appropriate interpretation of the present form of perfective verbs depends on the context and the speaker's or the addressee's point of view as the category of tense is more semantic than other categories (such as the case system). The difference of the future forms appears to be slight with regard to the remoteness of an action realisation and the moment of a speech act (present moment). The analytic future definitely implies the fact that the action has not started yet (even though there can be present evidence of the realisation), and the imperfective character of the verbs in analytic future does not refer to the completion of the action. To the contrary, the present form of perfective verbs does not imply whether the action has started or not as the semantics of perfective verbs aims at the completion of an action. The *po-* future cannot be strictly separated from the reference point (the present moment) as can the analytic future: *Jak dlouho poběžíme?* versus *Jak dlouho budeme běžet?* The analytic future implies that the running has not started yet. But it is more likely that the *po-* future expresses some present experience with the running. Both the analytic future and *po-* future forms do not refer to any completion of an action due to the imperfectiveness of verbs which they employ:

the moment of speech $\subset$ {the present tense of perfectives & the *po-* future}

the completion of an action $\not\subset$ {the analytic future & the *po-* future}

If futurality arises from the context or is marked by an adverbial, the present tense of imperfective verbs can also convey futurality: *Pozítří máme sobotu.*

While the present tense of perfective verbs only intersects the time axis, the *po-* future can express duration: *Když tě vystřelí do vesmíru, poletíš věčně*. To express repetition, the *po-* future must be complemented with frequency adverbials: *Denně skočí*

do sklepa pro brambory. Analytic future expresses repetition implicitly, which can follow from the semantics of a verb: *Budeme skákat sem a tam.*

The present of perfective verbs expresses the completion of an action, which arises from their semantics. The completion can be conveyed by the prefix *po-* (*posedím, postojím*). The completion of an action in the *po-* future is conveyed through lexical means only: *Ponesu to deset minut.* Still, it can be deduced from the fact that another action follows immediately: *Poletím a půjdu rovnou na úřad práce.* But without such contextual factors the *po-* future is never bounded in terms of temporality.

Bláha (2008, p. 120) admits that the *po-* future and perfective verbs with the prefix *po-* have similar features as the prefix *po-* weakens the temporal bound (i.e., the perfectiveness of a verb): *Dnes večer si pěkně počteme.* But such a use of the *po-* prefix results in a greater expressivity and emotional charge.[133] The prefix is mostly used with a limited number of verb categories[134]:

- Distributive verbs (*po-* refers to a gradual affection of the object): *pozavírat, poroznášet*
- Space occupation and settlement: *pozlatit, pokousat*
- Reduction of degree: *poprchávat, pokulhávat*
- No particular function: *podarovat, pokleknout*

In addition, the prefix *po-* can also precede other prefixes: *ponakouknout, poodejít*.

Besides the *po-* future, whose meaning is futural primarily, the present tense of perfective verbs has a number of secondary futural meanings. One of the secondary meanings is conveyed by the historic present, expressing successiveness of actions. Bláha (2008, p. 128) claims that the historic present is an expression of non-past reality. It can even appear in texts of proper style. *Po-* future cannot form the historic present.[135]

The present forms of perfective verbs can also express omnitemporality to convey the gnomic meaning. Bláha (2008, p. 130) claims that the gnomic function eliminates the boundaries of the past, present and future time. While the truth value of the propositional content is constant in time (i.e., always true), it is included in the moment of speech (i.e.,

133 The partial homonymy of *po-* future forms and present perfective forms is prevented by means of the prefix *po-* which is duplicated with *po-* future forms to convey successiveness: *poponést, popoletět*.

134 This resemblance of *po-* future forms and prefixed forms can result in interference. Verbs of linear motion in English tend to express futurality by means of the present progressive form or the *be going to* structure more frequenly than other verb categories.

Pojedu do Prahy. – I'm leaving for Prague.

Pokouše tě. – It'll bite you. (*It's biting you*. Is rather improbable)

135 Historic present also occurs in the English temporal system. Besides present simple forms, the auxiliary *will* accompanies present forms to convey retrospective futurality (Mikuláš, 2007). In addition, in professional texts present forms referring to actuality and factuality are used widely. While historic present is to be interpreted as past, 'professional' present refers to the present.

the present reality) and expressed by the present tense. Such a use of present perfective forms can occur in proverbs (*Jak si usteleš, tak si lehneš.*) and other axiomatic propositions (*Inflace vzroste, jestliže vzroste cenová hladina.*)

The *po-* future can hardly ever express omnitemporality as it conveys a very strong and unequivocal futural meaning. The neutralisation of concrete temporality (present, past and future) is therefore almost impossible. Bláha (ibid) considers some instances of omnitemporality as instances of clear futurality, especially if a potential futural consequence is anticipated and emphasised (e.g., in warnings, expectations, cautions). In such instances, even the *po-* future expresses the gnomic meaning:

- The strong futural interpretation of the present of perfectives: *Ten vždycky něco vyvede.*
- Omnitemporal interpretation of the *po-* future form: *Ten ti poleze třeba do stolu – jen mu dát příležitost.*[136]

The meanings of usualness and characteristic also realise the omnitemporal function. Unlike gnomicity, the propositional truth value is limited as it defines what is 'usual' (not true) persistently. This meaning can rarely be expressed by the *po-* future form. Still, Bláha (2008, p. 132) provides an instance: *Bez platu žádný dělník nám do díla nepůjde.*

Unlike the present form of perfectives, the *po-* future cannot express capability and disposition. The stronger futural meaning predominates even in cases where such an omnitemporal interpretation might be acceptable: *Půjde třeba padesát kilometrů v kuse a ani nepípne.*

Analogously, to the analytic future form, the imperative indicative form of the present tense of perfective verbs conveys futurality to express emphasis and greater (almost intimidating) emotional charge: *Sebereš se a vypadneš!* Some instances can even emphasize dignity: *Nepokradeš!*[137] The *po-* future form is also acceptable but not typical: *Vstaneš a půjdeš pro rohlíky, ale fofrem!*

Thus, it is apparent that the *po-* future can express secondary meanings, but its realisation is rare and almost inappropriate due to its strong futural interpretation and imperfective character.

136 In English, omnitemporal *will* is preferred in such instances. This can represent another source of interference.

137 While intimidation is expressed by *will* (*You will get out!*), dignity is conveyed by *shall* (*Never shall you steal!*) in English.

5.7.5.3 Complex Futurality

Futurality can be expressed by non-finite verb forms together with main verbs of certain categories. Phase verbs are a category that can be used to structure futurality. As a matter of fact, the verbs are not fully lexical. They cannot be used in any passive form. In addition, they can be complemented with infinitive forms but not with dependent clauses. Thus, they share some qualities with modal verbs. The appropriate complementation depends on the lexical verb and the aspectual characteristic of the phase verb. Bláha (2008, p. 136) states that the imperfective phasal verb is less likely to convey futurality: *Přestává kouřit.*[138] It only implies some future results of the phase. As the explicitness of the phase excludes complementation with perfective verbs, phase verbs can only embed imperfective verbs.

Unlike modal verbs, phasal verbs can form the imperative and imply presuppositions (*Začala chodit do tanečních.* implies she had not done so before). Bláha (2008, p. 136) shows that due to the phasal meaning they are able to convey objective futurality better than modal verbs. The futural meaning of the lexical verb is always actual.

A future state arising from an action taking place before some moment in the future can be expressed by means of the *"bude mít uděláno"* structure. This construction implies existence of an interface between the act of realisation of the future action and the subsequent state. The interface is located some time between the present moment and the future. Czech grammarians tend to classify this construction as a form of the analytic future (as the verb *have* is not fully desemanticised).[139]

5.7.5.4 Futurality as (un)certainty

Actions, states and events taking place in the future are always uncertain as there exists no empirical experience with them yet. Everything that is to take place in the future (e.g., our expectations, predictions, wishes) is more or less hypothetical. Bláha (2008, p. 139) claims that hypothetical futurality is conveyed by only few grammatical means but a large number of other ungrammaticalised tools. The whole variety of hypothetical

138 Differences in the meaning of English complementation may represent another source of interference: *He stops to smoke* versus *He stops smoking*.

139 As this structure can help learners acquire the future perfect tense in English, it can become a source of positive interlanguage transfer. But the non-existence of one-to-one correspondence between the Czech and the English "future perfect" construction can result in interference: *In May, they will have been married for 25 years* versus *V květnu spolu budou 25 let / V květnu tomu bude 25 let, co budou spolu.*

constructions expresses modality at the same time, namely various degrees of certainty, willingness and logical necessity. Czech and English possess similar constructions: epistemic prefixes (*jsem přesvědčen, pochybuji, že*), adverbials and particles (*určitě, zřejmě, nejspíš*), and modal verbs (*muset, moci*). The border between deontic and epistemic modalities is difficult to delimit.

Augmented certainty

Augmented certainty is expressed by means of imperfective present forms and constructions with the verb *jít/jet*. Present forms are used in a number of languages to convey certitude. Contrary to present forms, futural constructions are interpreted as uncertain (*Zítra jedu do Prahy* versus *To bude pošťák).*

Present forms are capable of conveying futurality as present grammatical forms can never be identical with the present moment. Any present form inherently expresses duration. It must have started before and continued after the moment of speech. This discrepancy between the grammatical form and reality creates the potential to express futurality.

Thus, the sentence *Jedu s vámi* refers to a future action, but it is expected to be certain as the agent has definitely decided to realise it. The high (maximal) degree of the agent's certainty is expressed by means of the present form. Bláha (2008, p. 141) claims that such forms are more frequent in colloquial language.[140]

The imperfective present forms conveying futurality and certainty require that the agent be capable of involving their will and decision regarding the future action. Actions and verbs that exclude the involvement of the agent's will cannot express such futural meanings (verbs of sensual perception such as *vidět* or *slyšet*). Thus, futurality is conveyed by present forms of verbs of motion (e.g., *jít, jet, letět*), *mít, dělat, kupovat, natírat, obědvat* and many other verbs expressing daily routines. Imperfective verbs that express complex and structured actions (e.g., *rozprostírat, porážet, mačkat* and iterative verbs) can hardly express futurality by their present forms.

Certainty of a future action can be emphasised by means of past forms. The transposition of the preterite form in the Czech language can convey futurality, especially in superordinate clauses complemented with subordinate clauses: *Jestliže teď spadnou*

140 Present forms expressing futurality of a high degree of certainty occur in English. They are not restricted to colloquial contexts only. Such forms represent immutability and stability that is based not on present evidence (timetable, schedule): *I am having a meeting tomorrow. The bus leaves at 5 o'clock.*

akcie, prodělali jsme čtyřicet tisíc. The futural meaning of the preterite form is framed and delimited by the future form in the subordinate clause. The temporal framework is thus constituted by a wider context.[141]

As mentioned above, the past form underlines inevitability of an unpleasant action, state or event unless a certain condition is fulfilled in the future. Other present and futural forms can also be used in such contexts: *Jestliže teď spadnou akcie, prodělváme čtyřicet tisíc* (present form – imperfective verb) and *Jestliže teď spadnou akcie, prodělame čtyřicet tisíc* (future form – perfective verb).

Bláha (2008, p. 145) states that the shift from the past form towards the future form decreases the intensity (inevitability) of the threat and the speaker's personal interest in fulfillment of the condition.[142]

The past form conveying futurality in superordinate clauses can only be used with perfective verbs. It appears that the function of the forms is to convey perfectiveness rather than the past.

The use of past forms expressing futurality can also arise from pragmatic reasons, namely to meet the politeness principle. The past form is used to modify the modality of a wish and request, aimed at a superordinate person: *Jen jsem se chtěl zeptat, jestli náhodou.*[143] The past form expresses wanting oriented towards non-past reality. Pragmatically, it is more appropriate to express wanting as past because it is non-present and therefore distant. [144]

Certain futurality can also be exressed by the *jít dělat* form. The verb *jít* cannot be interpreted as a verb of linear motion in this case. Its function is to express the succession of the infinitive action. The present form of *jít* suggests that the infinitive action has almost started. At least, the speaker has decided to realise it. Bláha (2008, p. 147) claims that such a form is used to convey certainty, decisiveness and near futurality.[145]

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141 Contrary to English sub- and superordinate future, Czech ordination is reversed. Temporal level is delimited by the subordinate action in Czech while English superordinate futurality is marked by the action of the superordinate clause. Unlike in Czech, present forms in English are almost the only acceptable forms conveying subordinate futurality. The use of subordinate present form can be a significant source of interference.

142 The resultant state expressed by the *mít uděláno* in Czech can also interfere with the appropriate superordinate futural form in English: *Jestli teď spadnou akcie, máme prodělánо čtyřicet tisíc.*

143 This is equivalent to the English *I wondered…* or *I wanted to know…*

144 The past form can be impolite when it is used in questions. It can be inferred that asking for one's wish is interpreted as unreal and unreachable: *Co jste chtěl?* In contrast, *Did you want to speak to me?* is prioritised in English over the present form.

145 Thus, this form can remind us of the *be going to* structuture in English. But there are differences which can be a source of interference. First, *be going to* also expresses certainty based on present evidence (*The shelf is going to fall down.* or *It is going to rain.*) Second, the Czech *jít dělat* form is used when the

Diminished certainty

Diminished certainty can be expressed by means of the conditional form. It expresses potentiality which is partly hypothetical. This non-reality, non-actuality and non-factivity conveys futurality of conditional actions, states and events. Conditional forms can be substituted by futural forms: *Bylo by nejlepší počkat ~ Bude nejlepší počkat.* Analogously, a warning can be expressed by both the futural and the conditional form: *Abys toho nelitoval ~ Budeš toho litovat.*

The difference between future and conditional (as well as imperative) forms is given by the time determination of an action, state or event. If non-futural meaning is expressed, time reference need not be determined explicitly. The futural meaning is always particularised by an adverbial (*zítra večer, už od ledna*).

5.7.5.5 Futurality as necessity, possibility and will

Necessity, possibility and present wishes refer to the future inherently. The sentence *Musím pít čtyři litry tekutiny denně* implies not only present necessity (arising from the situation, context, the speaker's obligation and decision) but also future necessity marked by the adverbial *denně.*

Unlike all the other constructions of futurality (analytic future, *po-* future or phasal verbs), expressions of deontic modality (*musím pracovat, chci pracovat, mohu pracovat*) refer to non-past reality. It is neither present nor future only.[146]

Futurality as necessity and possibility

Necessity and possibility are expressed mainly by modal verbs (e.g., *muset, mít, moci, smět*) but also by other lexical verbs (e.g., *hodlat, chtít, umět, dovést, dovolit si*). The modal meaning can also be conveyed by the phrase "*dát si něco udělat*".

Alethic modality[147], which indicates the modality of truth on the basis of objective, physical and logical conditions, is neutral in terms of temporality. The temporal boundary

realisation of the verbal action itself has been finished: *Zhasínám a jdu spát.* As a matter of fact, the action of *going to bed* (*jdu spát*) has been finished. In addition, Bláha (2008, p. 148) concludes that near futurality is not necessarily present in the English *be going to* form.

146 Bláha (2008, p. 151) claims that non-existence of the past forms of *must* (substituted by *had to*) and other deontic modals in English underscores their non-past interpretation.

147 Alethic modality indicates "the truth in the world", in particular necessity, possibility or impossibility. Unlike epistemic modality, it does not denote the speaker's evaluation or judgement of the truth.

of past, present and future is blurred, because it refers to omnitemporal reality: *Těleso musí vždy spadnout dolů.*[148] Futurality can thus be interpreted as a subset of three conjoint sets: *omnitemporality ⊃ non-past ⊃ futurality*[149].

Necessity can be subject-dependent or subject-independent. Subject-independent necessity is expressed by means of the *mít něco udělat* construction: *Mám se dostavit na katastrální úřad v pondělí nebo ve středu.* This structure can also express an indirect request and appropriateness: *Máme se hned vrátit.* In first person questions, it can also serve as a deliberate appeal: *Mám se vrátit?* In addition, it is used in authoritative statements liberating the subject of their will: *Od ledna má být dražší elektřina.*[150]

The future (non-past) possibility can be expressed by the modal verb *moci*: *V zimě můžeme sáňkovat a bruslit* and a number of lexical verbs (*dát se, jít*): *Dá se to/ Lze to/ Jde to spravit. Být* with verbs of sensual perception can also express future (non-past) possibility: *Je vidět Sněžka. Výsledek je dělitelný třemi.* Similarly, the verb *mít* (absent due to ellipsis) with the infinitive of a lexical verb can express non-past appropriateness: *Co dělat?*

Futurality as will

Futurality exists inherently in a strong expression of will, which can be expressed by various futural substitutes (*Zítra jedu do Prahy*)[151] and lexical verbs (*Jan chce/hodlá pracovat v Olomouci*).

Structures of volition also include the imperative which must always be interpreted as non-past. Volition follows from its appealing meaning.[152] The futural interpretation of the imperative can also be emphasised by parallel expressions of futurality in subordinate clauses: *Přijďte za mnou, až tu otázku prostudujete.*

148 In English, omnitemporality can also be conveyed by both *must* and *will*.

149 This hierarchy is only formal and is a matter of perspective. By analogy, the meaning of past can be interpreted as a subset of similar sets: *omnitemporality ⊃ non-future ⊃ past*. For instance, the present perfect form in English can be interpreted as a reference to non-future reality: *I have never been to Paris.*

150 In English, subject-dependent necessity and appropriateness are expressed by *must* and *should*, and subject-independent necessity and appropriateness by *have to* and *be to*, respectively. The Czech *má být uděláno* construction can interfere both with the *be to* structure and *shall* in English. Unlike the Czech structure, both the English phrases can express pure futurality especially in formal contexts.

151 In English, coloured futurality can be conveyed by almost all the core futural expressions (*I'm going to visit my mother, I will/shall take you home*), but the constructions can also express pure futurality (*It's going to rain, I guess they will be late*). The relevant interpretation depends on a number of contextual factors (Mikuláš, 2007).

152 The futural meaning of the imperative becomes apparent if we compare the interpretation of the *po-* prefix in the imperative and indicative mood of the verb *pojedu*. In the indicative, *po-* is a means of conveying futurality, in the imperative it expresses the motion towards the speaker. It might have lost the temporal meaning due to language economy (futurality is expressed by the imperative itself).

The imperative is also a means of expressing wishes oriented towards future: *Mějte se hezky.* By analogy, conditional clauses referring to the future (the present of perfective verbs) can by replaced by imperative forms: *Kupte a vyhrajte. (Pokud koupíte, vyhrajete.)* The appeal can be conveyed by other means: conditional (*Podal bys mi marmeládu?*), present indicative forms (*Nekecám a dělám.*) and the infinitive (*Mlčet!*).

5.7.5.6 Other (lexical) expressions of futurality

In Czech, temporal semantics is present not only with verbal but also nominal forms. Adjectives such as *svobodný, zasnoubený, ženatý* and *rozvedený* as well as adjectives ending in *-ný/-telný*: *zvládnutelný, sjízdný*)[153] are oriented with respect to the temporal axis. This wider concept of temporality will be referred to as temporal perspective. With regard to this temporal perspective, verbs whose semantics covers implicit temporal information (Hoffmannová, 1983, p. 69) can be identified:

- Phasal verbs (e.g., *začít, skončit*)
- Arranging verbs (e.g., *plánovat, připravovat*)
- Verba dicendi (verbs of volitional states and processes introduced by speech such as *rozkazovat, poručit, přikázat*)
- Verba sentiendi (verbs of mental/sensual states and processes such as *těšit se*)

For instance, verba dicendi are complemented by a dependent clause whose content refers to a future activity, state or event: *Přikazuje, abychom přišli později.*[154] The agent of the action is either the speaker (*slibovat*) or the addressee (*přikazovat*). Such sentences are introduced by the conjunction *aby* and the conditional mood is used (*Rozkázal, aby zavolali lékaře*). Futurality thus seems to be independent of the mode. If the dependent clause is introduced by the conjunction *že,* a future form is used (*Slibuji, že budu hodný.*)[155]

153 We will call this semantic property *orientation* (see Chapter 6). In fact, orientation is a relational category, which doesn not convey any absolute temporal determination.

154 The fact that subordinate futurality in a present form is required in English (*Make sure you lock the door*) proves the futural perspective of the verbs. This absence of an explicit futural form can result in numerous interferences of Czech learners of English.

155 Analogously, the futural perspective of the subjunctive and conditional moods as well as non-finite verbs forms can be identified in English: *He insists on coming a bit later. He asked us to do it later. He requires that we do it later. He requires that we should do it later.* Such a variability of forms together with the phenomenon of subordinate futurality in English can lead to intricate interferences.

5.7.6 Other sources of interference

The Czech inventory of lexical means of futurality comprises verbs and their deverbal nouns that can convey duration and progression (*probíhat, postupovat, vyvíjet se*). English progression in such instances can prioritise the use of the progressive aspect: *Vývoj inflace nebude příznivý.* (*The inflation will not be proceeding favourably.)*

Another source of interference can arise from the dichotomy of absolute and relative time. Relative time can frequently be found in Czech content and adverbial clauses: *Věřil, že se to podaří. Rozhodující byla jeho víra, že se to podaří.* (Hoffmannová, 1983, p. 68) The future reference of the subordinate clauses refers to the succession of the subordinate and superordinate action rather than to future reality. In fact, the future reality can be past at the time of reception. In English, the past interpretation would be marked by the relevant sequence of tenses. It can thus be assumed that Czech learners of English will observe the Czech pattern, not reflecting the sequence of tenses in English.

5.8 FUTURALITY AS A MEANS OF TEXTUAL (TEMPORAL) COHERENCE

Hoffmannová (1983, 1986) provides a detailed description of coherence, paying particular attention to temporal coherence. She emphasises that the research of temporal relations has to reflect the broad perspective of a communication event and its pragmatic aspect, namely the theory of speech acts (Hoffmannová, 1983, p. 2). She also claims that the ability to produce (temporally) coherent texts is an indispensable category of communicative competence. Competent language users must be able to analyse a communication event and situation, choose a proper communicative strategy and observe relevant patterns of various text genres in order to produce an appropriate text.

5.8.1 Structure of temporal meanings in text

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), temporality in any text can be observed with respect to two different perspectives:

- external time as a chronological location of particular events, processes and states, and their progression in time, or

- internal time defined by the linearity of a text through which the author composes and organises their text.[156]

Internal and external time converge in a communication event, where they also intersect the time of production and the time of reception of the text. The author of a text has to observe certain regularities and patterns at the time of production to enable the recipient to perceive and comprehend the text at the time of reception. The elaboration of temporal relations in a text contributes to content unity, which is determined by the selected means of cohesion. In addition, such temporal relations affect the pragmatic interpretation of the text (Hoffmannová, 1983, p. 55).

The interpreter of the temporal structure of a text and the means of temporality has to take into account the semantics of temporal sequences in the linearity of the text. The semantics has to include not only the progression of predications and their temporal relations (succession, duration, simultaneity and overlapping) but also the hierarchical structure of the temporal meanings (super- and sub-ordinate positions).

While certain text sections, which will be referred to as time spheres, only imply and connote implicit temporal meanings, there are also time intervals that delimit the utterance (text section) in the temporal continuum. Time spheres and time intervals create the time space of any text (Hoffmannová, 1983, 56).

The time space of a text can be hierarchised into sections that are characterised by their temporal category. The hierarchy of a text throughout the time space is constituted successively. Hoffmannová (1983, p. 56) claims that the category is usually specified by the first sentence of a text unit (e.g., paragraph), which creates a certain temporal framework for the whole unit.

The temporal framework is always delimited by the text producer and their temporal perspective (Hoffmannová, 1983, p. 57). The central point of time reference is thus the time of production. The reconstruction of the producer's communication goal by the recipient therefore requires to consider the producer's temporal perspective, which can be progressive in instructions, announcements and directives, or regressive in reference to the past. The mutual relations of temporal frameworks, such as succession or simultaneity, can be displayed and demonstrated on the time axis.

156 Hoffmannová (1986, p. 160) differentiates the following functions of temporal locators:
- the referential function as an indication to a particular time point or interval, and
- the cohesive function as an indication of the location within the text.

The minimum unit of a text which can be ascribed a time space (sphere or interval) is a sentence, but the time space exceeds a sentence if the text unit has a common reference point and temporal perspective. Thus, the temporal unit can be a sentence, a group of sentences or a paragraph. In any case, the sentence will always be a minimum unit. (Hoffmannová, 1983, p. 84) [157]

5.9 FUTURALITY AND SPECIFIC PURPOSES IN THE CURRICULUM

Foreign language learning and teaching are defined and delimited by a number of curricular documents. Unlike many other academic disciplines, the national language curricular frameworks are subject to the international framework called *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEF). All the language areas specified by other documents are then defined by referential levels.

5.9.1 Futurality and specific purposes in the Czech curriculum

The most comprehensive document describing the language education throughout school levels is *The national plan of language education of the Czech Republic*. This document specifies the referential levels to be achieved at the end of primary, secondary and tertiary education as follows:

ISCED[158]	**School level**	**Referential level**
1	Primary	Not specified
2	Secondary – lower	Not specified
3	Secondary – higher	B1 and B2
4,5,6	Tertiary	Not specified

Table 7: Referential levels with respect to ISCED levels

157 The time space of a temporal unit is usually created by the first sentence. The graphical layout of a text (paragraph, chapter) can observe the shifts between different temporal spaces. We will thus refer to sections with different time spaces as text units. Text units can then be differentiated according to the structure of their time space (linear versus hierarchised). Changes between time spaces within a text unit can identify a change of hypertheme. (Hoffmannová, 1983, pp. 87-89)

158 International Standard Classification of Education (Švarcová, 2008, p. 67)

Unlike other levels, the document sets the level of higher secondary language education explicitly to B1 level for the third language and B2 level for the second language. It can be deduced that language education at tertiary level (university and college) should lead to one level up, i.e., to level B2 and C1. In addition, the National plan determines that tertiary language education is to focus on the language for specific purposes.

The National Frameworks of Education (for primary and secondary schools) develop the ideas of the National plan. The National Framework of Education at Grammar Schools will be analysed in terms of futurality now since the document defines what undergraduates should master before entering universities.

The National Framework of Education at Grammar Schools explicitly declares that students will be able to master various verbal phrases and will be able to express futurality and structure of both super- and subordinate clauses. It can be deduced that both super- and sub-ordinate futurality is to be acquired by English learners. Student should be also able to express necessity, possibility and probability. There is no requirement in terms of the academic and professional discourse, register or genres (except for the professional and technical description). But the content area delimits a number of occupational spheres (business and trade, agriculture, industry, media and advertising, science and technology). This framework also explicitly determines the relevant referential levels for both lower and higher secondary education. Regarding the second language (first foreign language), students should attain A2 level at lower secondary school and B2 level at higher secondary school.

5.9.1.1 Catalogues of requirements for the school-leaving examination

The documents defining the requirements for the secondary school-leaving examination will be analysed to delimit to what extent futurality is examined. This level is likely to be the entrance level of university undergraduates.

The Catalogue of Requirements for the Final State School-leaving examination – English language defines the final level to be B1 (third language) and B2 (second language) in compliance with the *National plan of language education*. It also claims that the examination can cover topics from occupational areas. In productive skills, the learner should be able to express feelings, emotions, attitudes and express purpose, wish, request and offer. High level of accuracy (correct use of grammar) is assumed as well as

appropriacy in terms of the topic (content area) and style. In addition, learners are expected to use a wide range of language means to express the same functions so that their production is complex enough and learners are able to correct themselves. Their production should be also coherent and cohesive (with proper use of deictic means). Among other situations, learners are expected to understand and react appropriately in occupational areas. The newly-published catalogue was designed on the basis of the CEF. It also applies a descriptive rather than a prescriptive curricular approach, not enumerating any particular functional exponents, grammar or lexical structures.

It would therefore be more appropriate to consider a prescriptive document such as *The Catalogue of Requirements for the Common Part of the State School-leaving Examination in the Year 2004 – English Language* (2000) approved by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (under no. 28630/2000-2). This document provides an explicit list of futural constructions and differentiates which structures are appropriate for level B1 and level B2:

- **B1 level:** the present progressive tense to express futurality, the future simple and progressive forms (will + simple or progressive infinitive), *be-going-to* construction;
- **B2 level:** all the structures delimited in B1 level and the future perfect simple and progressive tenses (will + perfect infinitive simple or progressive), the present simple tense to express futurality, the structures *to be to*, *to be about to* and *to be on the point of* .

It is apparent that undergraduates studying English as their second language are expected to master all the core futural constructions.

5.9.2 Futurality and specific purposes in the international curriculum

5.9.2.1 The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, European Language Portfolio

In the following section, we will focus on the requirements of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* in terms of futurality constructions within written professional and academic discourse on levels B2 and C1, which are assumed to be achieved at university level. We will also analyse register and genre properties and other grammatical aspects related to futurality.

The general description of level B2 presupposes that a student

- *can understand the main ideas of a complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation,*
- *can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party, and*
- *can produce a clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.*

On C1 level a student

- *can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning,*
- *can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions.*
- *can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes, and*
- *can produce a clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.*

(CEF, p. 24)

On both the levels the professional context is declared explicitly. On B2 level, comprehension is required in the field of a student's specialisation. Production is assumed to be complex within a wide range of subjects, but no specialisation is claimed. On level C1, production and comprehension for both professional and academic purposes are assigned.

The European Language Portfolio (ELP) prescribes professional but also academic area even on level B2: *I can understand in detail texts within my field of interest or the area of my academic and professional speciality.* (ELP, p. 28) In addition, the learner on level B2 is expected to understand specialised texts outside their own field. Production relevant for a learner's field (profession, study) is also required (ELP, p. 31).

On C1 level, the European Language Portfolio requires all the abilities and knowledge prescribed for level B2 within a wider range of styles and registers. Highly specialised academic and professional purposes are also declared explicitly: *I can extract information, ideas and opinions from highly specialised texts in my own field, for example research reports* (ELP, p. 34). Comprehension of texts from other specialisations is also expected. In terms of accuracy, grammar mistakes should be rare: *I can consistently maintain a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare and difficult to spot.* (ELP, p. 37). High demands in terms of accuracy, stylistic and discourse features are claimed: *I can write texts which show a high degree of grammatical correctness and vary*

my vocabulary and style according to the addressee, the kind of text and the topic (ELP, p. 38).

Regarding grammatical accuracy, C1 mastery presupposes that a student consistently maintains a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare, difficult to spot and generally corrected when they do occur. B2 level students show a relatively high degree of grammatical control, do not make errors which cause misunderstanding, and can correct most of their mistakes.

Remarks on futural hypothesising can also be found in CEF. B2 level students speculate about causes, consequences and hypothetical situations. This descriptor also holds for the levels above.

The requirement of variability in terms of style, specialisation and purpose is clearly stated for both levels B2 and C1:

- B2: *The learner can understand in detail lengthy, complex texts, whether or not they relate to his/her own area of speciality, provided he/she can reread difficult sections. The leader can obtain information, ideas and opinions from highly specialised sources within his/her field. He/she can understand specialised articles outside his/her field, provided he/she can use a dictionary occasionally to confirm his/her interpretation of terminology.*
- C1: *The leaner can read with a large degree of independence, adapting style and speed of reading to different texts and purposes, and using appropriate reference sources selectively. He/she has a broad active reading vocabulary, but may experience some difficulty with low frequency idioms. The learner can understand in detail a wide range of lengthy, complex texts likely to be encountered in social, professional or academic life, identifying finer points of detail including attitudes and implied as well as stated opinions.*

On level C1, foreign language learners are expected to convey various moods and intentions:

- *The learner is skilled at using contextual, grammatical and lexical cues to infer attitude, mood and intentions and anticipate what will come next.*

Requirements of grammatical structures are declared by the descriptors of the linguistic competence. The general linguistic range on both the levels claims that learners' knowledge of grammar structures is complex enough so that students are able to express all intended ideas:

- C1: *The learner can select an appropriate formulation from a broad range of language to express him/herself clearly,without having to restrict what he/she wants to say.*
- B2: *The learner can express him/herself clearly and without much sign of having to restrict what he/she wants to say.*

Almost no mistakes are acceptable on both the levels that would interfere with grammatical accuracy. On level B2 only slips and non-systematic errors are declared.

As the accuracy and appropriacy of futural construction is delimited by the level of formality, sociolinguistic competence has to be considered to describe the command of futurality according to the Common European Framework. Even on B2 level, the CEF expects the learner to deal with formal and informal register skilfully:

- B2: *The learner can express him or herself confidently, clearly and politely in a formal or informal register, appropriate to the situation and person(s) concerned. The learner can adjust what he/she says and the means of expressing it to the situation and the recipient and adopt a level of formality appropriate to the circumstances.*

The pragmatic and functional competence assumes a high degree of precision in terms of likelihood, especially on level C1:

- C1: *The learner can qualify opinions and statements precisely in relation to degrees of, for example, certainty/uncertainty, belief/doubt, likelihood, etc.*

5.9.2.2 Vantage

While The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages is a descriptive document delimiting descriptors, some referential levels are defined more precisely by prescriptive curricular documents. The fundamental prescriptive document for level B2 is Ek's Vantage (2001). On the basis of the CEFR's descriptors, Vantage specifies the range of language means (grammatical, lexical and functional) and enumerates particular structures, functions, notions, topics and tasks that learners are to acquire. Language functions and grammatical structures will be considered to define particular requirements on the Vantage level. The following futural expressions are prescribed:

- Modal verbs: *can, may, must, shall, will* (for hypothetical possibility and logical necessity), should (for expectation), *would* (for hypothetical conditions)
- All the perfective and progressive forms
- Present progressive for future reference
- *Be going to* for proximal future
- Present simple for future reference
- *Will* for future reference, promises, requests, invitations, confident prediction, enquiring about (dis)satisfaction, intentions, (im)possibility, capacity

Language functions comprising futurality are as follows:

- Stating and reporting
  - Giving information on time (e.g., *When will it happen?*)
- Expressing knowledge, memory and belief

- Expressing degrees of certainty (confident assertion, tentative assertion, expressing uncertainty, expressing doubt and incredulity, expressing bewilderment, enquiring about certainty)
- Expressing modality
  - Expressing degrees of probability, enquiring about probability and possibility, expressing necessity (logical deductions), denying necessity, enquiring as to necessity, denying obligation, enquiring about obligation, expressing permissibility, denying permissibility, and enquiring about permissibility
- Expressing and enquiring about volition
  - Expressing wishes, wants and desires, enquiring about wishes, wants and desires, expressing intentions, expressing negative intentions, enquiring about intentions,
- Expressing and enquiring about emotions
  - expressing hope and expectation, expressing fear and anxiety, reassuring a worried or frightened person, comforting a sufferer (e.g., *It's going to be all right.*), expressing dissatisfaction (e.g., *That will not do.*)
- Suggesting a joint course of action (involving both speaker with addressee) (e.g., *Shall we dance?*)
- Requesting someone to do something
  - Urgent requests, giving instructions and orders, ordering goods (a meal and drink), asking someone for something, making polite requests, dropping hints on someone to act on
- Responding to a request
  - Agreeing to a request willingly, demurring (e.g., *I'll see what I can do*), refusing, expressing defiance
- Offering assistance
- Asking permission
- Granting permission
  - Granting permission willingly, granting permission with reservation, granting permission with reluctance
- Offering to do something for someone
- Enquiring whether an offer or invitation is accepted
- Defining (e.g., *Discreet. That is to say he will not talk unless told to.*)
- Using the telephone
  - Announcing new call. (e.g., *I'll call back again.*)

This enumeration presents only functions under which futurality was exemplified explicitly. There are certainly many more categories that can by realised by futural exponents. For the goal of this dissertation it is significant to identify functions that can be found in professional texts. On the basis of the list, undergraduates can be able to use futural expressions:

- To state and report facts in their professional (economic) field
- To express knowledge, memory and belief about various economic theories
- To express modality (such as probability of postulates and axioms)
- To express volition (e.g., the goal of the author of an economic text to deal with some topic)
- Defining (new economic terms)

- Requesting someone to do something (e.g., when the author wants the reader to think of some economic reality or assigns a problem to be solved)

On the basis of the curricular documents, it becomes apparent that university undergraduates are to be able to express futurality accurately in

- various formal and informal contexts,
- various specific, professional and academic subjects, and
- express various degrees of likelihood at the same time.

6 REDEFINED CONCEPTS OF TEMPORALITY AND FUTURALITY

6.1 REALITY, REALISATION AND REFERENCE FRAMEWORKS

There are a number of notions used when describing the various expressions of futurality, e.g., future in the past, past future and subordinate future. Still, a comprehensive system of futurality can hardly be found in any English grammar.[159] We will first attempt to set up a system for classification of expressions of futurality.

Čermák (2001) defines a tense as "a verbal category segmenting the time continuum into shorter periods usually with respect to the time of production and (non-)reality." But the definition anchoring temporal relations with respect to the time of production does not necessarily hold true, especially if the time of reception and the time of production are not concurrent[160]. For instance, in narratives authors tell stories that readers perceive as proceeding actually. This happens whenever a reader opens the book. Thus, the time of reality is more or less determined by the reader. The same is true about spoken messages recorded by answerphones.

Both the producer and the recipient are aware of the time inconsistency, still they do not provide any explicit explanation of the temporal situation for each other. Thus, the shared "now and here" framework is presupposed only implicitly and arises from the context as well as their shared knowledge.[161]

We will now establish the framework of realisation and the notions of the time of performance and the time of utterance[162] to locate an action within the "now and here" reality. The framework delimits what the relation of the two times is. Both the times are related to the present reality as presupposed by the recipient and the author (their "now and

159 In addition, grammarians use different concepts of temporality and refer to different futural constructions (see Chapter 5).

160 Hoffmannová (1983, p. 61) emphasises the role of the central time section, which can be the moment of speech. She proposes to use the term moment of enconding instead. But Hoffmannová (ibid) states that the interpretation of temporality can depend on the moment of decoding ether than on the moment of encoding. Čmejrková (1986, p. 194) claims that the principal functiona of tenses is to relate the time of action to the moment of speech, which she calls the grammatical moment of speech.

161 Without the shared "now and here" framework, it would be more appropriate that the author of the short message *Are you busy?* should write *Will you be busy (when you read the message)?* since the author's "now" (time of production) does not necessarily correspond to the recipient's "now" (time of reception). Instead of production, we shall refer to the moment with respect to the shared "now and here" as the time of utterance.

162 This crucial distintion between the time of utterance and the time of performance is accentuated namely by Hoffmannová (1983, p. 64).

here")[163]. This "common reality" will be referred to as the framework of reality[164]. All the labels (present, past, future and un-marked) of other frameworks (reference and realisation) will be used with respect to the reality (which is to be perceived by the recipient). In order to understand each other, both the recipient and the author must consider verbal actions with respect to the same reality framework (see Picture 16).

Close's concept of speaker's point of primary concern is a rather vague descriptor of temporality. Close (1977) does not give the concern any precise deictic interpretation. First, the term observes only the speaker's perspective. Second, the concern is not related to either T (present moment) or F (some time in the future) explicitly by Close (ibid). In addition, the expression "some time in the future" is a rather vague term. Close (ibid) does not declare clearly what the relation of F is to the time of the event. There is no doubt that the speaker's point of primary concern is a useful aspect that can help differentiate the expressions of futurality. We will therefore adopt the concept but refer to it as indication and redefine it as follows: Indication is evidence (i) identified at the time of utterance, (ii) related to the time of performance, and (iii) objective from the speaker's point of view.[165] The relation of indication to the time of utterance and the time of performance constitutes indication as a deictic category.

In addition, it is obvious that the time of performance and the time of utterance that can be present, past and future with respect to the presupposed framework of reality constitute another framework that delimits the temporal interpretation of the verbal phrase. We will refer to this framework as the framework of realisation.

Indication viewed from the time of utterance can refer either to point of concern located before or after the time of performance. The former will be referred to as pre-indication and the latter as post-indication.

Besides the dimension of the pre/post-indication, the orientation of reference can also be defined that constitutes the framework of reference. Orientation can be viewed as a vector pointing from the time of utterance to the time of performance. Such a vector has

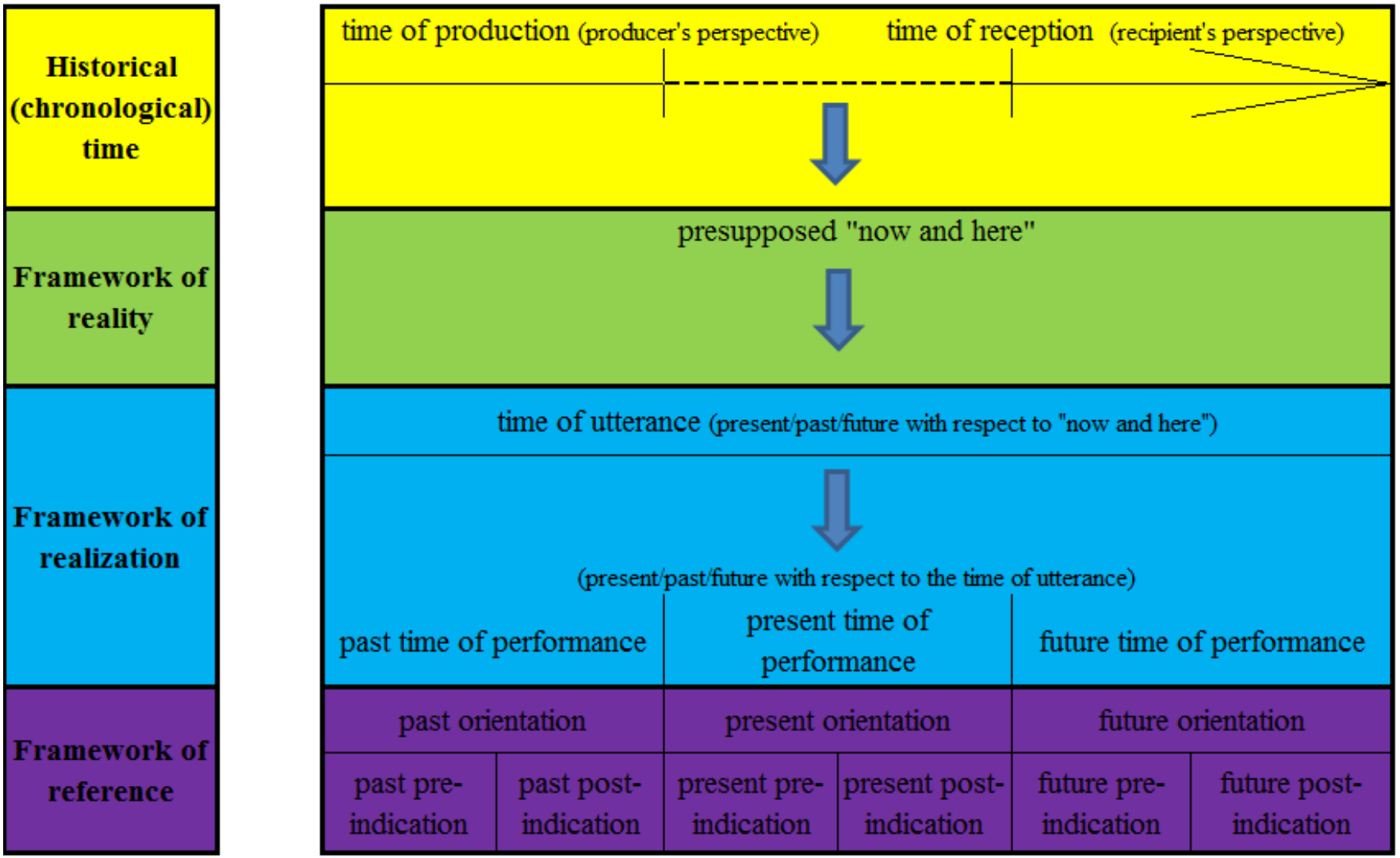
163 Hoffmannová (1986, p. 161) states that all communicants have to adopt the perception of temporality of the other communicants. The recipient needs to accept the author's temporal perspective and their text time space. The author also needs to anticipate the recipient's perspective at the time of decoding. This anticipation is significant for the organisation of the text as well as for the way the author's goals, intentions and plans are realised in the text. We will use the term reality framework to comprise such an acceptance-anticipation dichotomy.

164 It is the framework of reality that delimits what grammarians call absolute time.

165 Unlike Close (ibid), we consider indication (speaker's point of primary concern) only as an objective manifestation of reality. We thus do not consider the framework of volition (deontic modality) as an indication since the interpretation of an agent's volition is more or less subjective from the speaker's spoint of view.

two dimensions: a direction with respect to the time axis (past, present and future) and the length[166]. The framework of reference then describes what the relation of the orientation and the pre/post-indication is to the time of utterance by means of labelling these as present, past, future and un-marked with respect to the time of utterance (thus to the reality). Orientation refers to the direction with respect to the reality delimited by the framework of realisation, i.e., between the time of performance and the time of utterance. The mutual relations of the concepts can be displayed graphically as follows:

166 The length of orientation then defines what Comrie (1985) calls remoteness.



Picture 16: Model of temporal frameworks

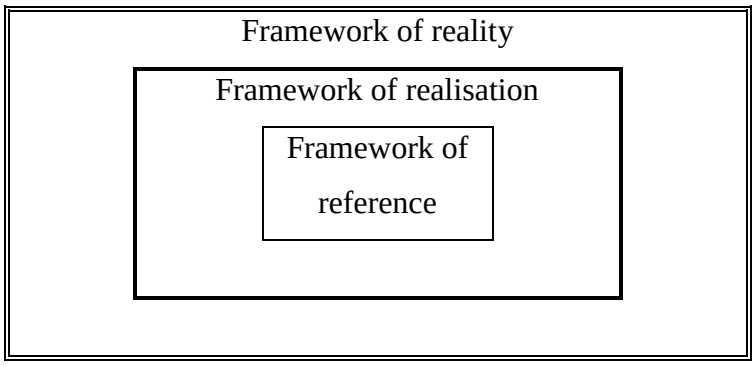
Even adverbials as deictic markers can be related to both the realisation and reference frameworks. *Now I**'m going to have** no money at the end of the month* contains two adverbials, one referring to the present and the other to the future. This is likely to be a contradiction as one action, state or event can only have one time of performance. But we claim that *now* is an adverbial that marks indication and delimits the framework of reference. At the end of the month refers to the time when lack of money will become reality (the time of performance), i.e., it delimits the framework of realisation.

Pre-indication refers to evidence present at the time of utterance with respect to the beginning of the performance: *The car **is going to turn** to the right* (evidence at the time of utterance indicating the beginning of the performance as present with respect to the time of utterance).

Post-indication refers to evidence present at the time of utterance with respect to the end of performance: *They **will have finished** the work by Sunday* (evidence at the time of utterance indicating the end of the performance in the future).[167]

While the dimensions of utterance, performance and orientation are always marked (past, present or future) with respect to the framework of reality, indication can remain unmarked. Thus, only some expressions of futurality can convey indication inherently.

We can interpret the relations of the frameworks as follows: *framework of reality* $\supset$ *framework of realisation* $\supset$ *framework of reference*.



Considering a few instances, the two frameworks can be arranged as follows:

167 Post-indication can be present at the time of utterance, for instance in case of the present perfect tense: *I have broken my leg. They have made five copies*. The results of the actions are evident at the time of utterance. This differentiates the present perfect tense from the past tense, which is used when post-indication is not evident any more.

Instance 1: *Before they come, we **will have finished** our homework. (past future/ future perfect tense)*[168]

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Future[1]
Post-indication	Future[2]

Instance 2: *She said she **would not come** on Monday. (future in the past)*

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Past
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Past
Post-indication	Un-marked

Instance 3: *She said she **will come** on Monday.*

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

168 The orientation of reference and the post-indication of this instance refer to two different future points. We will mark the difference by indices. When the future of orientation precedes the future of post-indication, the future perfect tense is used to emphasise the fact that the action will have finished before a particular deadline (i.e., the orientation ends before the post-indication). Since aspectuality exceeds the scope of the dissertation, it will not be elaborted in greater detail.

Instance 4: *She said: "I **will come** on Monday."*[169]

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future/past
Time of utterance	Past
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Future/past
Post-indication	Un-marked

Instance 5: (narration) *Then he says they **will not come** again. (together with historic present)*

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Past
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Past
Post-indication	Un-marked

Instance 6: (narration) *One day he **will die** in pain. (retrospective futurality)*[170]

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Past
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Past
Post-indication	Un-marked

Instance 7: *They **will be going to refuse** the offer. (future in the future)*

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Future
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

169 The time of utterance of *I **will come** on Monday* is past with respect to "now and here". But all the deictic expressions are used as if they "referred from another now and here". This phenomenon will be called disjoint reality framework and will be explained later.

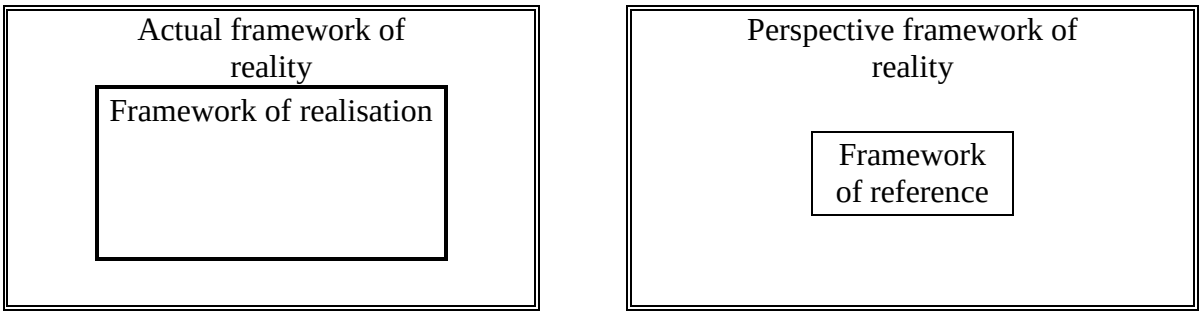
170 Retrospective futurality can also be found in the Czech language: ***Budu** první československý brankář, který chytal ve Wembley.* (in a memoir) (Hoffmannová, 1983, p. 66).

Instance 8: *The Iraqis **aim to have shot** down fourteen aircraft by the time the war is over.*[171]

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Present
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Future

It will become apparent why the framework of reality is an indispensable but not an only aspect or the framework of temporality. From the tables above, it might seem that the reality framework might not be significant as all the frameworks are subsets of one another, i.e., the frameworks of reference and realisation might constitute sufficient criteria for a temporal interpretation of an utterance. We will thus consider two instances, introducing two perspective frameworks of reality, retrospective and prospective, as opposed to actual framework of reality.

Let us assume a piece of novel, describing a past reality by means of the historical present: *Peter lives in London. Now he is satisfied, but one day he **will** long for a change.* The modal *will* refers to a past state with respect to "now and here" presupposed by the author and the reader. We will demonstrate the interpretation using the following figure:



Both the author and the recipient interpret the realisation dimension of the utterance with respect to the actual framework. They both know what the time of utterance (present) as well as the time of performance (past) are with respect to the presupposed (absolute) time. Still, the orientation is expressed by a "future" form as it is seen from a different perspective, i.e., within a perspective reality framework (leading from an earlier past state

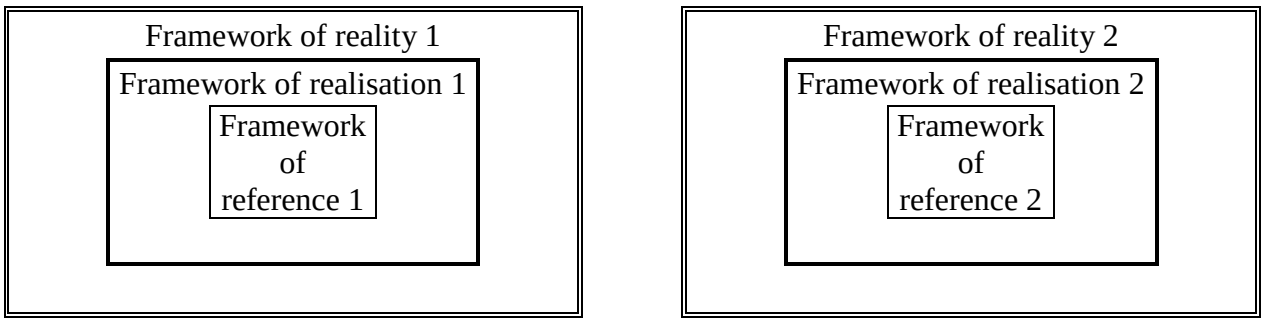
171 The lexical verbs convey pre-indication through their lexical meaning. The infinitival future is always framed by the lexical verb.

to a later past state, i.e., towards "future"). We will refer to this perspective as a retrospective framework and this sort of futurality as retrospective future.[172]

Close (1977, p. 103) gives an example of a past tense that refers to the future reality: "*What are you doing tomorrow? – Er-well-I* ***was crossing*** *the Rubicon."* Close (ibid) interprets the utterance paraphrasing it as follows: "*I was thinking of crossing the Rubicon tomorrow when you asked me.*" The progressive aspect can thus suggest the speaker is planning the event. But the past refers to a future action (the time of performance) with respect to the actual time, i.e., the time of utterance. The orientation is therefore future. We can again use the figure displayed above to show that the reference framework of this future orientation is simply interpreted within a perspective reality framework, which is past. We will refer to this perspective as a prospective framework and this sort of futurality as prospective past. These prospective and retrospective temporal dispositions will be referred to as split reality frameworks. If communicants are to perceive (produce and receive) the reality accurately, they must share the same reality framework. Considering split frameworks, the absolute time is defined by the actual reality framework.

Split reality frameworks should not be mistaken for disjoint reality frameworks, which are clearly marked by direct speech. The act of stating a piece of information and the verbal act representing the formulation of the statement took place at different times (i.e., within different reality frameworks). The act expressed by direct speech did not take place *now and here* (the actual framework of reality) and it thus has its own reality framework including the relevant reality and reference frameworks[173]. The act of coming can thus be seen as independent of the actual framework.

She said: "I will come on Monday."



172 Čmejrková (1986, p. 194) asserts that the reference point and the presence of the author do not overlap in such situations. The author abondons the perspective of his presence and observes the view of the participant in the action. Čmejrková (ibid) refers to such a perspective as a relative viewpoint. Retrospective futurality can also be identified in the Czech language: ***Budu*** *první československý brankář, který chytal ve Wembley.* (in a memoir) (Hoffmannová, 1983, p. 66).

173 All the deictic expressions (personal, temporal and spatial) are used as if they referred from another "now and here". Hence, the introductory clause (*She said*) and the content of the direct speech are percieved as if they had different deictic realisations.

The actual reality framework (*now and here*) and the other reality framework (*then and there*) are isolated not only graphically but also indexically. While retrospective future is seen from *now and here*, referring to the objects as being then and there by means of relevant personal pronouns and adverbials (e.g., *Then he will become rich.*), direct speech transfers communicants to another reality (preserving indexical means with respect to the original reality). As reality frameworks delimit the absolute time, this process of switching reality frameworks means switching absolute times.[174] In both the split and the perspective reality frameworks reference is not realised under the actual framework of reality. Future forms are therefore used even though they may refer to past events with respect to the actual "now and here".[175] Temporality can now be redefined as a verbal form expressing the mutual relations
among the frameworks of reality, realisation and reference.[176]

The numerous concepts of futurality in English and disputations about (non-)existence of future tense arise from the fact that some authors regard futurality in a broader sense as any expression of temporality with the future orientation of reference. Others constitute futurality as a tense (i.e., a conjugated verbal system) with the future orientation of reference.

In addition, Huddleston et al. (ibid) differentiate matrix and complement times (i.e., matrix and complement futures). For example, the constructions *will* and *be going to* themselves refer to the future. At the same time, the infinitival complement refers to the future as well. Thus, in the sentence *I want to say goodbye*, *want* refers to the present (matrix time), but *to say goodbye* refers to the future (complement time). This differentiation will be referred to as the structural framework and will be considered later.

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174 The discrepancy in reality frameworks (absolute times) becomes apparent when the "unquoted" and "quoted" temporal deictic expressions refer to the same deictic centre with respect to the historic (chronological) time. In this example, the same historical time is referred to by a past deictic expression (*yesterday*) and a future expression (*tomorrow*) at the same time: *The day before **yesterday** she said: "I will do it **tomorrow**."*

175 Unlike disjoint frameworks of reality, in the split frameworks only temporal deictics are interpreted from the perspective of a different reality. Personal deictics are transformed with respect to "now and here": *"Fancy that! Yesterday he comes and says he will not do it for me."* It is reference framework which is split from the actual reality framework. The realisation of the performance of coming and saying the utterance is perceived as past by the recipient. In the disjoint frameworks, the act of saying and the content of saying differ in all deictics as they have different temporal deictic centres due to difference frameworks of reality (i.e., absolute times).

176 Obviously, chronological (historic) time only delimits the order of events and measures the length of orientation (remoteness) in this concept of temporality.

Orientation and pre/post-indication of reference should not be confused with Huddleston's focus. The concept of focus refers to the relation of the action to the present reality, e.g., *I'm going to read it tomorrow*. In this instance, there is some present evidence (intention and arrangement) even though the orientation is definitely future. The instance is thus marked with present focus. The notion of focus is a matter of implicature rather than real reference. In *We have been living here for 15 year* we can find a future focus, implying we continue living there in the future.[177] The future focus can also be found with present progressive tense referring to a broader present time framework of a temporary situation such as*: I never read the classics or anything like that, and now I'm reading them*. Unlike reference, focus cannot be interpreted and transformed by means the core expressions of futurality together with adjuncts of future time. Instead of focus, we will rather use the term indication to mark the existence of any present evidence which becomes a part of the orientation and is a dimension of the framework of reference.

In the dissertation, we will study futurality in accordance with the following criteria:

- In compliance with Huddleston et al., futurality will refer to instances in which **the** complement situation and/or the matrix time is located in the future, i.e., within the structural framework.
- In terms of the other framework criteria, we will describe instances:
  - whose time of performance is future,
  - whose time of utterance is present,
  - whose orientation of reference is future, and
  - whose pre/post-indication of reference is either un-marked, present, past or future.
- Other instances (e.g., future in the past) will not be explored in a greater depth. Some examples will only be used to illustrate other realisations of future but will not be included in the statistics or analysed to a greater extent.

6.2 OTHER DIMENSIONS AND DESCRIPTORS OF INTERPRETING FUTURALITY

6.2.1 Pure vs. coloured future redefined

One of the essential criteria to describe and interpret an expression of futurality is the presence or absence of modality. Futurality that also expresses modality is therefore

177 Aarts calls this use of the present perfect a continuative present perfect. This use denotes a situation that began in the past and leads up to the present time, and possible beyond. The continuative character is usually indicated by an adjunct of time.

referred to as coloured future in the dissertation. Modal colouring is sometimes said to be inherently present in any expression of future as statements about future must always be epistemic in a way, but a number of authors have exemplified instances of pure future and classified them (Haegeman, ibid).

According to the degree of certainty ascribed to future happening, Leech (2004) proposes the following certainty scale:

> (1) certain: *present simple* expressing future as a fact
> (2) neutral: *will + infinitive, will + progressive infinitive, subordinate future present*
> (3) uncertain: *be going to, present progressive* expressing future as outcome of present intention, cause or arrangement

The level of certainty is based on the level of mutability. The most certain constructions of futurality are therefore the most immutable and vice versa.

As futurality tends to convey epistemicity, modal verbs will inherently express futurality. According to Leech (2004, p. 74), the verb *can* is a frequent proposal of futurality in terms of possibility. It can thus replace *will*, especially colloquially: *We can see about that tomorrow*. Similarly, *may* conveying possibility and permission indicates a future event, and there is no clear borderline between its modal and future meaning (Leech, 2004, p. 76). The purely futural interpretation co-occurs with particular morphological categories (Mikuláš, 2007).

In the dissertation, primarily core expressions of futurality (see Chapter 5.3) will be analysed and interpreted. Other modal verbs and expressions will only be exemplified to demonstrate the meaning of the core expressions better. Hence, besides *will* and *shall* no other modal verbs are included in the statistical analysis.

6.2.2 Future in past, future in present and future in future

The framework of realisation, the framework of reference and their mutual relationships can explain what various authors call future in past. In addition, this concept will be extended with the analogy of future in present and future in future.

Future in past will refer to a situation described by the following table:

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Past
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked or past
Orientation of reference	Past
Post-indication	Un-marked or past

The time of performance is set in the past so the orientation is past, i.e., performance preceded utterance. It is irrelevant whether there is any pre- or post-indication. We can find examples of both pre- and post-indicated future in the past.

Future in present refers to any situation in which time of utterance is present and time of performance is future. Orientation of reference is also future, but if there is any pre-indication, it is also evident at present time. The dimension of post-indication is either un-marked or future.

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Present/Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Future/Un-marked

Future in future refers to a situation when the time of performance is future, time of utterance is present, but there may be a pre-indication in the future. Post-indication can also be un-marked or future.

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Future/Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Future/Un-marked

6.2.3 Past (in) future

Some grammarians also recognise past in future (see Chapter 5). These constructions refer to future-oriented actions uttered at present and performed in the future.

There need not be any pre-indication present (pre-indication is irrelevant with respect to past future), but there will be objective evidence post-indicated at the time of utterance.

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked/present/future
Orientation of reference	Future[1]
Post-indication	Future[2]

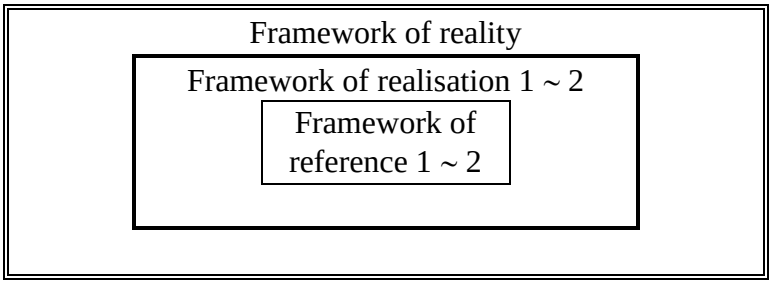
6.2.4 Related (subordinate and superordinate futurality) and unrelated futurality

Leech (2004) gives an example of subordinate future in dependent clauses (namely introduced by conditional, temporal and manner conjunctions *if*, *unless*, *when*, *as soon as* or *as*):

I'll tell you if it hurts. (Leech, 2004, p. 63)
When you wake up, you'll remember nothing. (Leech, 2004, p. 63)

As opposed to subordinate future, we might distinguish a superordinate future expressed by *will* in the sentences above. Leech explains the difference between subordinate and superordinate future as follows: "Here the future is indicated by the ordinary Present Tense, instead of the construction with *will* that might be expected. Apparently this is because the situation indicated in the dependent clause is not a prediction in its own right, but something given or assumed to be the case, a contingency of the future reference in the main clause." (Leech, 2004, p. 64)

Using the frameworks of realisation and reference, the difference between subordinate and superordinate future lies in the same framework of realisation (which will be referred to as a conjoint framework). The time of utterance as well as the time of performance are the same, the time of the subordinate future action being a contingency within the superordinate framework:



In addition, both the orientations have no pre- and post-indication, thus the reference frameworks are also conjoint. In case of conjoint frameworks of reference, only one future remains marked while the subordinate future form is considered as redundant and thus remains unmarked.

The subordinate future can also occur in content and relative clauses where the main clause suggests futurality:

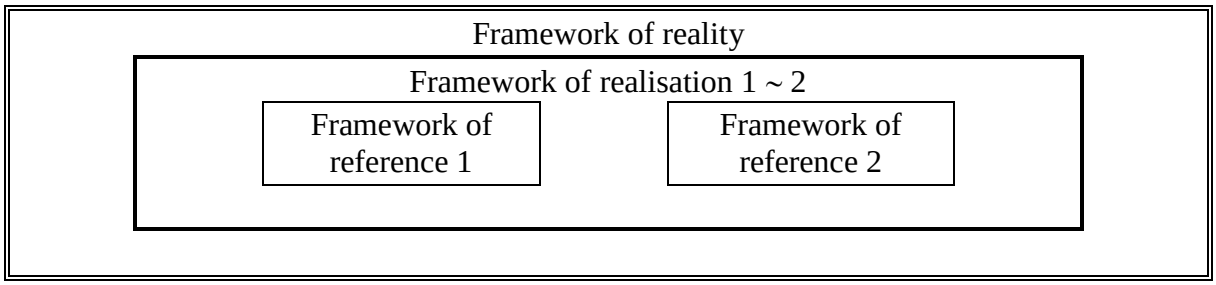
Make sure you get up early. (Leech, 2004, p. 64)
Just suppose we miss the plane. (Leech, 2004, p. 64)

In both these cases the main clause refers to the future even though there is no clear grammatical marker (*will*). This futurality will also be called lexical in accordance with Bláha (2008). *Will* in such instances is omitted. Leech (ibid) asserts that the use of *will* in such sentences is inappropriate such as in **Be careful you won't spill it.* After certain verbs such as *hope* or *bet* it is possible to use either *will* or the present simple: *I hope we (will) win* or *I bet you (will) lose.* This use of subordinate future applies to specific classes of verbs and adjectives followed by that-clauses used in imperative: *make sure*, *be sure*, *be careful*, *mind*, *ensure* or *see*. Leech (ibid) explains the future meaning as follows: "Perhaps, this is again because the independent clause clearly places the time-zone of the dependent clause in the future, and no separate reference to the future in the dependent clause is needed." (Leech, 2004, p. 64)

The role of the reference framework becomes apparent if we consider the instances in which *will* is used in both the subordinate and superordinate clause:

If you'll come this way, I'll show you some of our latest products.
If you'll be alone at the New Year, just let us know about it.

This use of *will* in the dependent clause arises from its reference framework, i.e., its orientation, pre- and post-indication, different from the framework of the independent clause. In the first instance, the if-clause can be paraphrased as *"If you are willing to come…".* Besides its volitional interpretation, the state itself must have a present pre-indication which is not present in the framework of the independent event. Similarly, Leech (ibid) interprets the second instance with this paraphrase: *"If you can predict now that you will be alone…"* This present pre-indication makes both the reference frameworks disjoint.



Still, both the subordinate and superordinate futures have a conjoint framework of realisation, because their time of utterance and time of performance refer to the same future reality.

Leech supports the differences between conjoint and disjoint reference frameworks by stating that *"The effect of the Simple Present is quite different: If you are alone this New Year, just let us know about it. This means: 'If, at the New Year, you find yourself alone, let us know about it at that time.' Here the condition exists in the future."* The present pre-indication is therefore often expressed by other future means such as *going to*. Leech (ibid) thus suggests that *If you will be alone…* can simply by replaced by *If you are going to be alone…*

Similarly, the future subordinate use of the present simple is not exclusive. The present progressive, present perfect or past simple forms can occasionally be found:

> *Don't forget to phone me tomorrow and let me know how you're getting on. (Leech, 2004, p. 65)*
> *As soon as the guests have been welcomed, show them into the garden. (Leech, 2004, p. 65)*

Present progressive is used to refer to a future scenario as the present indication. The reference frameworks of the super- and sub-ordinate actions are therefore disjoint. The perfect progressive tense is used to convey the existence of a future post-indication (the moment when the welcoming is finished will obviously come). We can thus conclude that future remains unmarked by subordinate present simple mainly in case of conjoint reference frameworks.

The term subordinate appears to be vague and misleading because subordination can be interpreted as a syntactic function, i.e., as a position of a verb within or out of a dependent clause. We will refer to it as syntactic subordination.[178] As has been shown above, Leech (ibid) interprets subordination on the level of temporality, i.e., as a situation when the dependent clause is devoid of future reference due to the dependent reference in

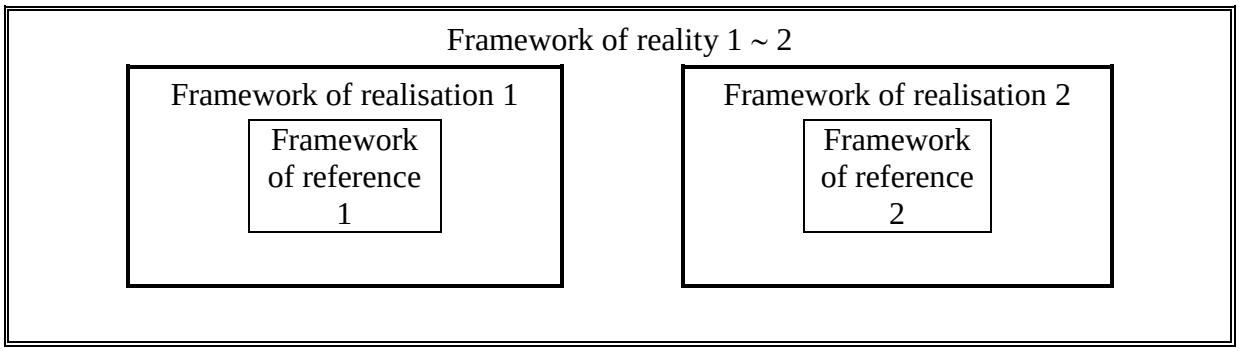
178 This concept is preferred by Lock (ibid).

terms of the system of frameworks, when the reference frameworks are conjoint. We will call it temporal subordination and we will show that such a disposition can have more levels. In other words, the syntactic subordination can represent various levels of temporal subordination.

Let us consider the following three instances that we will interpret using their framework schemata:

(1) *If you are in New You, visit me!* (~ Now that you are in New York, you can visit me. Please, do so!)

While the dependent clause refers to the present time, the independent refers to the future. Thus, their realisation and reference frameworks are disjoint, which can be represented by the following framework schema:



Similarly, (subordinate) present perfect in such cases refers to the past-in-future reality. Its time of performance is different from the independent time of performance, and the realisation frameworks therefore remain disjoint.

Syntactic subordination in case of non-finite participle clauses can also represent no temporal subordination on the realisation and reference levels. Both the interpretations of the following instances show no temporal subordination:

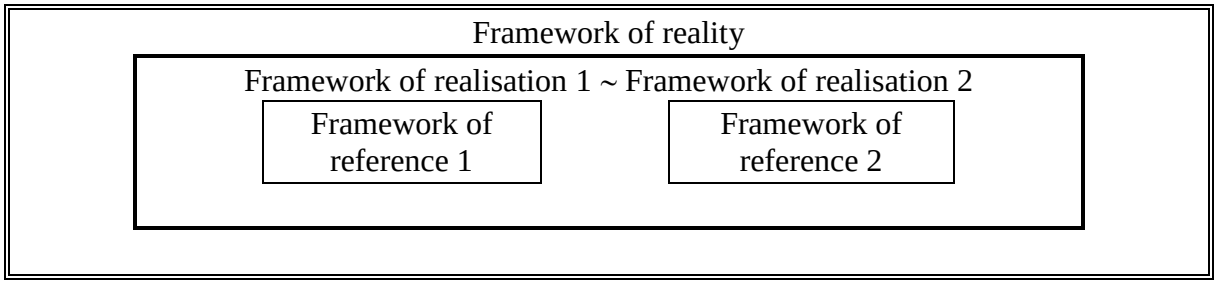
Having heard the news, I will phone him.

(a) I have just heard the news, so I will phone him.
(b) I will have heard the news and (then) I will phone him.

(2) *If you are going to/will be in New York, visit me!* (~ If you have arranged your stay in New York, you must visit me when you are there)

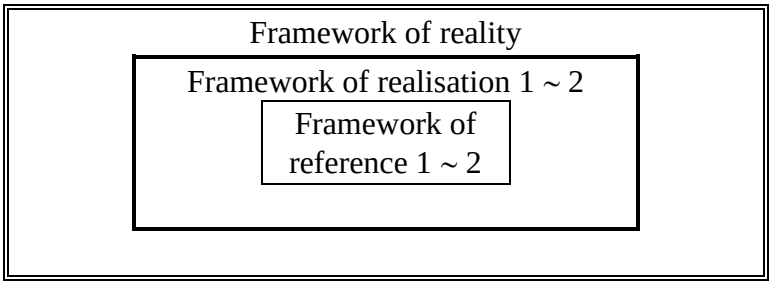
In this case, the actions in both the clauses have the same time of utterance as well as performance, thus their frameworks of realisation are conjoint. But the independent clause

suggests a pre-indication, i.e., its orientation is pre-indicated at the time of utterance. Their reference frameworks will therefore remain disjoint and the future will remain marked by either *will* or *be going to*.



(3) *If you are in New York, visit me!* (~ If you happen to arrive in New York, visit me!)

The last instance represents what Leech calls subordinate present simple or subordinate future. The act of being in New York and visiting the friend will take place at the same time, referring to the same time of performance. The orientations of both the actions are neither pre-indicated nor post-indicated. It implies that the references are perfectly conjoint:



6.2.5 Remoteness of future (far, near and imminent future)

Theoreticians and grammarians describe and interpret expressions of futurality in terms of when the future actions, events and states are to be realised. In terms of frameworks of realisation and reference, this criterion describes what the relation of the time of utterance and the time of performance are, in other words, how long the framework of reference orientation is (hereinafter referred to as orientation length). This length is often described as near. Leech (2004, p. 59) suggests the following examples:

Watch it! That pile of boxes is going to fall! ('I can see it already tottering.')

Just look! She's definitely going to win the race! ('She's starting to overtake the other runners.')

Near future is implied by *be going to* if no adverbial is present in the clause. Thus, '*We're going to buy a house in the country,'* implies 'soonness'. Immediacy is definitely not a fundamental semantic feature and *be going to* can be used for what we will call far future as opposed to near future: *I'm going to do what I like when I retire.* (Leech, 2004, p. 60)

Besides near future, other structures are declared to refer to even nearer future, called imminence (immediacy or soonness). For instance, *be about to* and *be on the point of* can refer to immediate future. Imminence can also be found in present simple clauses expressing inexorable determination such as in *Into bed you go*. Leech (ibid) interprets this example as requiring the child to respond right away.

Although it seems that near and immediate future might have the same referential effect and thus overlap, their orientation lengths can be different. Leech (ibid) emphasises this difference in the interpretation of the 'matter-of-course' connotation of future progressive tense. This structure refers to near but not too immediate future. If something is to happen in the natural course of events, it cannot happen immediately. Leech (2004, p. 68) states that "we shall not expect it to refer to events too far in the future nor to events too close to the present moment."

Besides immediacy, there are events whose orientation length can be shorter than immediate. These instances can be found with expressions of futurality anticipating future events by virtue of a present plan, programme or arrangement. The future is not only anticipated, but it has started to be realised in a way, i.e., it is anticipated and in-progress. That is the reason why *just* or *now* can be inserted in these sentences to make the commencement explicit: *I'm just taking Mary our for a meal.* (Leech, 2004, p. 62) Some authors also use the terms short-range and long-range future to delimit the use of *will*. Leech (2004, p. 57) exemplifies the two ranges as follows:

In twenty year's time, no one will work more than a thirty-hour week.

There will be a fire-alarm drill at 3 o'clock this afternoon.

As a matter of fact, no author explains the differences between anticipated, immediate, short-range, long-range, near or far. There are no particular time limits to identify these categories. In addition, it is obvious that these categories cannot be ascribed to particular constructions of futurality. We will thus call this succession of temporal spans as an

orientation length continuum to emphasise that the lengths may vary creating a continuous temporal zone within which expression of futurality can convey various future meanings: far future > near future > imminence (immediate future) > in-progress anticipatory future.[179]

6.2.6 Futurate and non-futurate (mutable and immutable futurality)

The term futurate is used for such expressions of futurality that represent future assumed to be a fact. These constructions attribute a very high degree of probability to future events, which is usually attributed only to present and past events. The property of the events is underlain by their immutability. According to Leech (ibid), this futurate use "overrides the normal feeling that the future is less certain than the present or past." Such statements are often based pre-indications such as schedules, programmes, timetables and calendars:

Next Christmas falls on Thursday. (Leech, 2004, p. 65)
The semester starts on 1st February. (Leech, 2004, p.65)

Non-futurate constructions lack in immutability. They express various degrees of certainty. The statements of certainty about the future can arise from various pre-indications that are apparent, obvious or evident at the time of utterance or as an outcome of present intention, cause or arrangement. Such future is conveyed mainly by means of *the present progressive tense* and the *be going to* construction.

The uncertain future which is not based on any pre-indications is a future simply predicted to happen. It is thus the most neutral way of referring to the future in terms of immutability. This futurality is conveyed by *will* + infinitive, *will* + progressive infinitive and the subordinate present simple tense.

6.2.7 Factual and non-factual (imaginary) futurality

The difference between factual and non-factual futurality will be differentiated as it is a significant criterion of selecting futural constructions in professional economic texts (see Chapter 7). Factual futurality refers to futural propositions that are stated as facts, i.e., the realisation is declared as a fact. They can be prefixed by “It is the fact that...”: [It is the

179 Imminence can also be conveyed by lexical means such as phasal verbs (*I start to*).

fact that] *if the invoices are not adequately controlled, there will be no assurance that the £22,500 figure is correct.*

Non-factual (imaginary) futurality refers to an imagined situation, i.e., the realisation is only imagined. Such a proposition can be introduced by "Imagine that...": [Imagine that] *Jane Parker is going to set up a new business on 1 January 20X1. She estimates that her first six months in business will be as follows: ...* [PRB 1] Not only the existence of Jane Parker but the whole situation is only imagined.

6.2.8 Statistical occurrence of futural constructions (frequency order)

Futurality expressions can also be sorted according to their frequency of use. Leech (2004, p. 69) determines the following frequency order:

(1) *will* + infinitive
(2) subordinate future simple present
(3) *be going to* + infinitive
(4) futurate present progressive and futurate simple present
(5) *will* + progressive infinitive

Simple present is relatively infrequent in its futurate meaning in independent clauses. Still, it is the second most frequent expression of futurality in English due to the high occurrence of subordinate futurality.

6.2.9 Formality level of futural constructions

Expressions of futurality vary with respect to the level of formality they convey. *Shall* is declared to be an alternative to *will* with first person subjects in more formal styles of speaking and writing. Leech (2004, p.58) gives the following example: *I hope we shall meet again quite soon.*

In very formal contexts *shall* is used to express future reference with second- and third-person subjects. This use can be perceived as old-fashioned. But the differentiation also depends on a regional variety. In American English, even the first-person plural and singular *shall* is used in very formal contexts.

The expression *be going to* is also used in informal and spoken English according to Leech (2004, p. 58). Similarly, a planned future expressed by the construction *be to* is

based on a very formal decree issued by an authority and is thus used in rather formal style. Its use is similar to the present simple, but it is more frequent in more formal contexts.

The formal-informal dichotomy holds for other modal verbs referring to the future. For instance, *may* is regarded as more formal than *can* when expressing permission and prediction. Leech assumes that *may* is "now increasingly restricted to formal contexts where writers (or speakers) are on their best linguistic behaviour." (Leech, 2004, p. 77) In addition, *may* is used in very formal exclamatory future wish constructions where *may* is placed in front of the subject. *May* is also used in concessive clauses beginning with whatever, whenever, etc.: *Our task is to deal with our customer's complaints, however unreasonable they may be.* (Leech, 2004, p. 77)

Formal *may* referring to the future can also be found in purpose clauses beginning with *in order that* and *so that*: *The object is to preserve these monuments, in order that the achievements of the past may not be forgotten.* (Leech, 2004, p. 78) As can be seen, formal *may* and *be to* co-occur in such contexts. These uses of *may* are not only formal but also becoming old-fashioned.

6.2.10 Factual and theoretical futurality

Since futurality is closely related to modality, it can adopt some modal categories. We have shown above that *will* as well as *can* can be used to refer to the future to convey to meaning of possibility. Similarly, the futurality co-expressed by these verbs can be distinguished.

We will refer to theoretical futurality as possibility and factual futurality as potentiality. Possibility (*will, may*) will express a degree of certainty without conveying any potential, capacity and disposition: *The road may be blocked.* ~ It is possible that the road is/will be blocked. (the future meaning can be intensified by future adverbials) (Leech, 2004, p. 82)

Potentiality will label the interpretation of *can* that expresses a capacity or disposition: *The road can be blocked.* = It is possible to block the road./It is possible for the road to be blocked. (the future meaning can be intensified by future adverbials) (Leech, 2004, p. 82)

6.2.11 Futurality and medium (mode)

Some authors emphasise that expressions of futurality can be restricted to the written or spoken medium. Typically, *be going to*, present progressive and future progressive (*will* + progressive infinitive) are referred to be more common in (almost restricted to) speech than writing.

6.2.12 Futurality and politeness

Some future forms are used as indicators of politeness. We can thus claim that particular forms are more polite than others in certain contexts. For instance, progressive forms are used as more tactful alternatives to their simple (non-continuous) counterparts. This also holds for the future progressive and simple forms. Leech (2004, pp. 67-68) interprets the sentences *"I'll be driving to London next week. Can I give you a lift?"* as an offer where the progressive form forestalls the awkward feeling of indebtedness on the listener's part. The speaker simply states: *"I will be making the journey anyway, so don't feel you will be causing me trouble."* Similarly, the sentence *"Will you be putting on another play soon?"* lacks in any pressure towards the person questioned.

Similarly, ordering and asking for permission can be expressed with various polite and impolite shadings:

Do it! Versus *Will you do it please?*
Can I send it? Versus *Shall I send it?* Versus *May I send it?*

May is less frequent, but is traditionally more polite and 'correct' than *can*. This use of *may* is limited to contexts where writers and speakers are on their best linguistic behaviour.

Will is also used in a positively negative meaning especially when spoken with falling intonation: *Will you be quiet!* (Leech, 2004, p. 88)

6.2.13 The emotional charge of futurality (expressive and neutral futurality)

Various futural constructions can also differ in their emotional charge that they convey. When such constructions are interpreted literally in a seemingly inappropriate context, they can have an ironic or comic meaning. For instance, it has been shown above that the future progressive form refers to events that will happen in natural course of

events. Thus, if we exploit this meaning, it can lead to a comic interpretation: *You'll be losing your head one of these days.* (said to a forgetful person) (Leech, 2004, p. 68)

The present simple tense expressing immutable futurality can also be interpreted as a means of certainty, something that must happen which conveys a comic meaning: *Next week John fails his driving test.* (Leech, 2004, p. 65)

6.2.14 Lexical and grammatical futurality

Bláha (2008, p. 159) and Huddleston (2010, p. 210) advocate a broader concept of futurality (in both the Czech and English languages). Huddleston (ibid) supports his view claiming that English has no future tense and all futurality can be expressed by means of various grammatical means (imperative, mandative subjunctive, present futurate, subordinate present, bare infinitival, to-infinitival, gerund-participial).

Both the authors see the source of futurality to be inherent in the lexical-semantic quality of some parts of speech (verbs, adjectives, nouns and others). Bláha claims that these lexical units are simply oriented on the time axis. For instance, these are phase verbs (e.g., *start, begin, continue*) as well as verbs of planning, intending and many others.

Bláha (ibid) also divides verbs conveying futurality into two major groups: verba dicendi and verba sentiendi. The former group comprises ordering and commanding about a future action. The latter group refers to verbs of mental states and processes (e.g., thinking, desiring, expecting).

We will thus distinguish grammatical from lexical futurality. Grammatical means of futurality are those whose future meaning cannot be easily derived from their lexical meaning or whose lexical meaning is not perceived as such anymore. Regarding the construction *be going to*, the verb *go* does not imply any movement of walking, driving or riding any more. On the other hand, the phrase *be destined to* still yields dependence on one's fate.[180]

180 The present conjugation of the lexical verbs (but also of *be going to, be to, be about to, be on the point of,* the present progressive and the present simple) is likely to suggest certain pre-indication (objective evidence from the speaker's point of view *): They want to buy a car. ~ They are going to buy a car.* (a decision seems to have been made)

6.2.15 Producer- and recipient-oriented futurality

As we have seen above, futurality can be inherently conveyed by means of lexical meaning (namely by means of verbs). As lexical meaning can express various semantic relations, these can then be found in the nature of their futural interpretation as well. Thus, verba dicendi can be divided into producer-oriented and recipient-oriented. Producer-oriented verbs, i.e., producer oriented futurality, refers to actions, events and states whose agent is the producer (e.g., verbs of promising). On the other hand, recipient-oriented futurality makes the recipient (patient) bound to realise an action, state or event (e.g., verbs of ordering).

6.2.16 Matrix and complement futurality

Within the structural framework defined by Huddleston (2010, p. 209), we can differentiate two levels of futurality. Matrix futurality, being the matrix time, is expressed by the head/matrix verb. Analogously, complement futurality is a complement time, whose source can be found in a complement (noun, verbal, adjectival). Within the structural framework, there are two combinations of how futurality can be delivered:

- Matrix present and complement futurality:
  *I **want to send** the letter later.*[181]

"wanting"

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Present
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Present
Post-indication	Un-marked

181 It appears that the matrix present also serves as a present pre-indication of the complement future: *They want to send the letter.* ~ They are going to send the letter (a decision seems to have been made). Analogously in the future (future in the future): *They will want to send the letter.* ~ They will be going to send the letter.

"sending"

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Present
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

*He **is destined to become** a hero.*

"destiny"

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Present
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Present
Post-indication	Un-marked

"become"

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Present
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

- Matrix futurality and complement futurality:
  *I **will tend to** forget everything.*

"tending"

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

"forgetting"

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Future[1]
Orientation of reference	Future[2]
Post-indication	Un-marked

6.2.17 Absolute and relative futurality

As we have defined what absolute and relative times stand for, it is obvious that absolute and relative futurality can also be recognised. While absolute futurality is interpreted within the actual framework of reality, relative futurality is only relatively future, i.e., it refers to future with respect to another action delimited by the actual reality framework. Relative past can thus be an expression of absolute futurality: *After having done your homework, you can go to the cinema.* Analogously, relative future can refer to actions of absolute past: *I intended to send the letter later.*

6.3 FUTURALITY AS A DIDACTIC PROBLEM

Futurality appears to be a didactic problem for Czech learners of the English language due to a number of aspects. First, the English language lacks in any unique (flectional) system that would refer to the future. Instead, grammarians enumerate a number of expressions of futurality that have a clearly grammatical function (modal auxiliary verbs) or (semi-)lexical function (*be due to, be on the point of, be about to* and others). Such a wide range of structures employs many rules of use to differentiate all their functions.[182] Since the Czech system of futural constructions comprises fewer forms, there is no one-to-one correspondence between Czech and English structures. In addition, the incongruity also holds for their meanings and functions.

The phenomenon of futurality is inseparable from modality. Thus, futural structures convey various modal shades and, vice versa, modal verbs and phrases can refer to the

182 For instance, some authors define over 30 functions of *will*, the most frequent futural structure (see Haegeman, 1983).

future implicitly. These connections are often neglected and learners can therefore perceive the structures as either futural or modal.

The Czech system of futurality rests on the category of aspect. The choice of futural constructions depends on the aspect considerably. But the concepts of aspect in Czech and English differ substantially. Czech aspect is lexical resulting from the meaning of lexical verbs. English aspect is based on complexity of grammatical means.

The choice of futural structures in English also depends on other stylistic and contextual aspects. As some grammarians declare, the formality level and the medium (spoken and written) co-determine occurrence and absence of some expressions. The interpretation of futural functions also depends on context and co-text, namely the (in)animate subject, negation and the passive. These external factors intensify the disharmony between the two (Czech and English) systems of futurality.

There also exist syntactic discrepancies that make grammatical and appropriate use of futural structures complicated for Czech learners of English. Notably, it is the existence of temporal subordination that co-exists together with syntactic subordination. The absence of explicit futural expression in subordinate clauses and the various combinations of frameworks proposed above may result in numerous interlinguistic interferences of Czech learners. Finally, the absence of the sequence of tenses in Czech can cause other misconceptions and misuses.

Obviously, futurality meets the criteria of the most difficult linguistic phenomenon (level 5) for L2 learners as defined by Brown (2007). He differentiates five levels of difficulty which can lead to negative interlanguage transfer:

- LEVEL 0 – Transfer: There is no difference or contrast between L1 and L2, so positive interlanguage transfer support L2 acquisition.
- LEVEL 1 – Coalescence: Two items in L1 become coalesced into essentially one item in L2. Hence, learners overlook a distinction they have grown accustomed to.
- LEVEL 2 – Undifferentiation: An item in the L1 is absent in L2. Thus, learners must avoid such an item.
- LEVEL 3 – Reinterpretation: An item which exists in L1 is given a new shape or distribution in L2.
- LEVEL 4 – Overdifferentiation: A new item is comprised entirely in L2, but it bears little if any similarity to the native language L1 item, so the new L2 concept must be learnt.
- LEVEL 5 – Split: One item in L1 becomes two or more in the target language L2, so learners must make new distinctions.

Exhaustive acquisition of futurality in English can also last long for Czech learners of English not only due to the presumable interference, but due to the developmental

complexity of the acquisitional process. Pienemann (1998, p. 67) proposed a Hypothesis Space that develops over time in accordance with the following hierarchy:

- LEVEL 1 – lemma access; words; no sequence of constituents
- LEVEL 2 – category procedure; lexical morphemes; no exchange of information; canonical word order
- LEVEL 3 – phasal procedure; phrasal morphemes
- LEVEL 4 – simplified sentence procedures; exchange of information from internal to salient constituent
- LEVEL 5 – sentence procedure; inter-phrasal morphemes; exchange of information between internal constituents
- LEVEL 6 – subordinate clause procedure

The Hypothesis Space presupposes that the ability of L2 learners to match features across elements in a sentence develops gradually and is not straightforward. Subordinate clause procedures (including subordinate temporality) are therefore the most complex problems whose acquisition is a long-lasting process.[183]

183 Among others, it is the aim of our empirical research to assess ESP learner's ability to observe critical grammatical markers to use expressions of futurality accurately and appropriately, including crucial syntactic phenomena (subordinate futurality). It can be assumed that university undergraduates might reach fairly high level in Pienemann's hierarchy as they have acquired English as a second language for nine and more years (at least at lower and higher secondary school) and their English proficiency level is upper-intermediate and above.

ANALYTICAL PART

7 EXPRESSIONS OF FUTURALITY IN THE CORPUS OF ECONOMIC TEXTS

7.1 MEANING AND FUNCTION

7.1.1 Meaning

The various meanings of propositions can be analysed with respect to Halliday's system of experiential, interpersonal and textual modes of meaning (Halliday, 2003). According to Halliday, the experiential mode reflects how human beings make meaning from experience. In terms of temporality and futurality, experience with various temporal and futural relations is reflected in a human language, construing a theoretical model of the experience.

The interpersonal mode comprises grammatical choices with respect to all communicants. Halliday claims that the function reflects interactions ranging "all the way from the rapidly changing microencounters of daily life – most centrally, semiotic encounters where we set up and maintain complex patterns of dialogue – to the more permanent institutionalised relationships that collectively constitute the social bond." (Halliday, 2003, p. 16) Halliday proposes that "the clause of the grammar is not only a figure, representing some process – some doing or happening, saying or sensing, being or having – with its various participants and circumstances; it is also a proposition, or a proposal, whereby we inform or question, give an order or make an offer, and express our appraisal of and attitude towards whoever we are addressing and what we are talking about. This kind of meaning is more active: if the ideational function of the grammar is 'language as reflection', this is 'language as action'. We call it the interpersonal metafunction, to suggest that it is both interactive and personal." (Halliday, 2004, pp. 28-30)

Unlike the experiential and interpersonal functions, Halliday (2003) also recognises the textual function which embraces grammatical systems organising the flow of discourse: "[the systems] create coherent text – text that coheres within itself and with the context of situation." (Halliday, 2003, p. 17) Halliday (ibid) states that the object of the textual mode is language itself: "In a sense this can be regarded as an enabling or facilitating function, since both the others – construing experience and enacting interpersonal relations – depend

on being able to build up sequences of discourse, organising the discursive flow and creating cohesion and continuity as it moves along. This too appears as a clearly delineated motif within the grammar. We call it the textual metafunction[184]." (Halliday, 2004, pp. 28-30)

In our research, we adopt Halliday's concept as transformed and interpreted by Lock (1995) in his pedagogical grammar. According to Lock (ibid), structures in grammar can be analysed with respect to a number of different meanings. There are three different meanings (retrieved from Halliday) that must be differentiated: experiential, interpersonal and textual.

The experiential meaning explains the ways in which language represents our experience. The experience can be based on the perception of the actual world or our thoughts and feelings. Lock (ibid) defines this meaning as talking about actions, happenings, feelings, beliefs, situations and states and the relevant circumstances of time, place and manner.

Interpersonal meaning "has to do with the ways in which we act upon one another through language" (Lock, 1995, p. 9). This meaning expresses how people get other people to do things, how people give and request information, offer to do things themselves, but also the ways people express their judgements and attitudes (such as likelihood, necessity and desirability).

Textual meaning interprets the ways "in which a stretch of language is organised in relation to its context" (Lock, 1995, p. 10). Among other things, it is textual meaning that contributes to the creation of coherence in a spoken and written text. Lock (1995, p. 10) claims that almost all clauses express the three meanings simultaneously. Let us consider the following sentences:

/1/ *Tony got up at 7.00.*
/2/ Did Tony get up at 7.00? – Tony might have got up at 7.00.
/3/ It was Tony who got up at 7.00.

Seemingly, all the three sentences convey the same meaning. Still, the meaning can be decomposed into the three constituents. First, they are all about a person (Tony), who performed an action (got up) at a particular time (7.00). This is an analysis of the experiential meaning. But the second sentence introduces likelihood, based on the

184 Halliday (2004, p. 31) uses the term 'meatafunction' to emphasise that functionality is intrinsic to language. In addition, the term is used to distinguish 'metafunctions' from 'functions', which Halliday (ibid) uses for a purpose or a way of using language.

assessment by the speaker. Thus, the first and the second sentences differ in terms of the interpersonal meaning. The expression of the author's attitude and judgment is different in the first two sentences. Finally, in the last sentence the content has been rearranged to place a strong focus and emphasis on Tony. To understand the meaning and purpose of the focus, the recipient would need to refer to the wider context. Therefore, besides the experiential and interpersonal meanings, there is another constituent conveying meaning based on wider contextual and contextual parameters of a text, which will be referred to as textual meaning.

7.1.2 Function

Before we start analysing the particular functions of the selected futural constructions, it will be necessary to discuss a concept of function. The word function has been used in a number of ways in both linguistics and language teaching theories.

According to Lock, functions are used in language teaching theories for particular realisations of speech acts such as "asking for directions, describing people and places, talking about the past, and so on". (Lock, 1996, p. 10). This approach hinders the analysis because:

- there is no agreed-upon list of all functions (though some curricular documents try to compose it, namely the Common European Framework for Languages and Van Ek's series)
- enumerations of functions are based on inconsistent criteria (*describing people and places* can mean *talking about the past* at the same time)

The linguistic concept of function can also be explained in a number of ways. First, it is the part that a unit plays in a larger structure, e.g., in *I met my brother*, the phrase *my brother* has the function of direct object. The function here is a relevant counterpart for a sentence element. But it can also be an utterance such as a positive reaction (answer) for a question. It means that function is sometimes defined as a part in larger question-answer interchanges. Another even wider interpretation of function embraces other non-linguistic elements. For instance, the formula *Let us pray* together with kneeling is an expression of a particular function (Matthews, 1997, p. 138). Here the counterpart of a function is a realisation of a particular speech act.

According to Thornbury (2006), the function[185] of a language item is its communicative purpose. Language can be described on different levels, from forms and their meanings to their communicative uses. Thornbury (2006, p. 87) considers the following examples:

/1/ *Thank you for sending me the disk.* (in an e-mail)
/2/ *Thank you for not smoking.* (a notice in a taxi)
/3/ *No smoking.* (a sign in a classroom)

While the first sentence expresses thanks, the second is a prohibition. The third sentence is also a prohibition, showing that the same function (prohibiting) can be expressed by different forms. As we have seen above, the interpretation of meanings of forms and their functions requires knowledge of context. It is the discipline of pragmatics that studies how a context and functions are interrelated.

Thornbury (ibid) emphasises that functions can be categorised broadly and at increasing levels of detail. His approach is top-down oriented, distinguishing macrofunctions (expressive, regulatory, interpersonal and representational), which can be hierarchised into microfunctions expressed as speech acts. Speech acts can then realise various functions such as agreeing, reporting, and warning. Common functions are expressed by various forms that are called functional exponents. Analogously, one form can express a number of functions.

It becomes apparent that first the term function will have to be anchored with respect to the various theories presented above. To preserve the consistency of the classification, we will not analyse only the form – function opposition interpreted within a certain context. The affiliation form – meaning – function will be considered. This approach is required by Lock: "As we have seen, each clause simultaneously embodies three kinds of meaning – experiential, interpersonal, and textual and they all need to be taken into account to understand how the clause functions in context" (Lock, 1996, p. 10).

Hence, for the purpose of classification, we distinguish the experiential, textual and interpersonal functions of propositions. This differentiation may look a bit artificial as each proposition bears all the modes of meaning. For example, an instance of intratextual reference expressed by means of *will* (e.g., *We will be concerned with the topic in the last chapter*.)

- reflects human experience (e.g., linear sequencing of the text that a reader has to proceed chronologically),
- conveys interaction between the author and the reader (expresses the author's

185 Thurnbury (2006, p. 88) also considers function as an opposition to form with regard to the functions of different elements of a clause (e.g., subject and object). This approach is referred to as linguistic.

commitment as well as will and intention to deal with the topic; in addition, the author helps the reader to find a better orientation throughout the text and assures the reader that more will be explained later), and
- delimits the organisation of the text (intratextuality).

This co-presence of all the modes of meaning cannot be disclaimed. However, in numerous cases one function appears more foregrounded or prominent; furthermore any classification (of functions) requires the formation of a classification criterion or more criteria so that a consistent system (of functions) can be created. Thus, in order to classify the functions of futural expressions we will underscore one of the three meanings and define functions with respect to the highlighted meaning as follows:

- experiential meaning ⇒ experiential functions
  (i.e., futurality primarily as a means of expressing temporality)
- interpersonal meaning ⇒ interpersonal functions
  (i.e., futurality primarily in speech acts and microfunctions[186])
- textual meaning ⇒ textual functions
  (i.e., futurality primarily as a means of coherence and other properties of text)

7.2 CORPUS AND ITS ANALYSIS

Text selection comprised in our research results from:

- the purpose of the dissertation (to study futural expressions in the professional and academic written economic context),
- another relevant classification of texts (so that results of the research are comparable with other studies), and
- the classification of sciences and their disciplines.

The classification of the British National Corpus (BNC) was adopted as one of the most cited and largest English corpora[187] (e.g., Berglund, 2005). The British National Corpus classifies texts into:

- written (90 %)
- spoken (10 %)

186 The terms macrofunction and microfunction are used in accordance with The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.
187 BNC contains about 90 million words of written data.

Written texts are sorted according to text domains, time and medium:

Text domain	Time	Medium
▪ imaginative ▪ arts ▪ belief and thought ▪ commerce ▪ leisure ▪ natural and pure science ▪ applied science ▪ social science ▪ world affairs ▪ unclassified	▪ 1960 – 1974 ▪ 1975 – 1993	▪ book ▪ periodical ▪ miscellaneous published texts ▪ miscellaneous unpublished texts ▪ to-be-spoken texts ▪ unclassified

Table 8: Classification of texts in BNC

With respect to the BNC text classification, our corpus covers texts of social science (economics[188]), published after the year 2004 as books.

To specify the text selection more precisely, we will also refer to Halliday's variation of use in terms of register (Halliday, 1989, p. 44). Register is defined as variation according to use, which is subdivided into three categories of language use: tenor, mode and field (domain). Halliday himself (ibid) calls this classification as functional variety. Tenor is delimited by the relationship between a speaker and the addressee in a given situation. For instance, tenor can affect the level of language formality as a speaker "has to know which is the right kind of language to use in which circumstances..." (Leech, 1982, p. 9). Mode refers to the medium (written or spoken) in which the language is transmitted and the field (domain) delimits the activity in which the language to be used plays a part. Basically, it is specified by a subject (chemistry, law and religion), activity (seminar), or genre (written legal document).

According to Halliday (ibid), it is that functional variety of language which "leads to the emergence of configurations of semantic and lexico-grammatical patterns that can then be recognised as characteristic of writing." (Halliday, 1989, p. 45) The aim of our corpus-based research is to investigate semantic and lexico-grammatical patterns characteristic of futural constructions. With respect to the functional variety, our source text (corpus) can be described as follows:

188 The Oxford English Dictionary provides the classical definition of economics: "The branch of knowledge (now regarded as one of the social sciences) that deals with the production, distribution, consumption, and transfer of wealth."

Tenor	▪ texts produced by professional economic experts for other professional economic experts (advanced graduates, undergraduates and researchers declared explicitly by authors)[189] ▪ authors are native British speakers (in case of co-authorship, at least one author declares to be a native speaker) lecturing at prominent British universities and research institutes: University of London, Lancaster University, Institute of Economic Affairs London, University of Aberdeen, University of Bristol and University of Exeter
Mode	▪ books (comprehensive written professional/academic texts)
Field	▪ the academic subject of economics ▪ various disciplines of economics included to extend the field (macroeconomics, microeconomics, financial studies, political economy) ▪ various topics included to extend the field (general economics, economics of education, economics of healthcare)

It is therefore obvious that our corpus-based study explores the use of the core expressions of futurality in written texts which Halliday calls "texts for information" (1989, p. 40). Among other texts, this category comprises non-fiction books and textbooks.[190]

The following English professional books[191] were selected on the basis of the above-mentioned criteria:

> [PRB 1] Elliott B., Elliott J. (2011): *Financial Accounting and Reporting.* Harlow: Pearson Education Ltd.
> [PRB 2] Fine B., Milonakis D. (2009): *From Political Economy to Economics.* Abindgon:Routlege.
> [PRB 3] Johnes G., Johnes J. (eds.) (2004): *International Handbook on the Economics of Education.* Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing Ltd.
> [PRB 4] Johns H., Merod. P (2007): *Happiness, Economics and Public Policy.* London: Institute of Economic Affairs.
> [PRB 5] McGuire A., Henderson J., Mooney G., (2005): *The Economics of Health Care*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
> [PRB 6] Sloman J., Wride A. (2009): *Economics.* Harlow: Pearson Education Ltd.
> [PRB 7] Witztum A. (2011): *Introduction to Economics.* London: University of London.

All instances of the core expressions of futurality were excerpted from the books by means of the software tlCorpus2013 (version 8.1.0.1087). Hence, the statistics of the particular futural constructions are comparable. Only instances of the present simple tense were excerpted selectively as the number of instances would exceed the scope of our analysis. In

189 Generally speaking for economic academia.
190 Halliday emphasises that the categories are not clear-cut.
191 Hereinafter, the source materials will be referred to as PRB and their number.

addition, a large number of instances are ambiguous between present and future interpretations. So, only subordinate present simple occurrences were analysed[192].

7.2.1 Distribution of futurality in the corpus

On the basis of the excerpted instances of the core expressions of futurality certain tendencies and preferences can be observed throughout the corpus.

Futural construction	Occurrences	%
will	6001	92.57
shall	177	2.73
be going to	45	0.69
be about to	15	0.23
be to	239	3.69
be on the point/verge of	0	0
present progressive	6	0.09
Sum	**6483**	**100%**
present simple[193]	481	---

Table 9: Statistical occurrence of futural expressions in corpus

First, the frequency analysis shows that futurality is predominantly conveyed by the verb *will*. All the remaining expressions are rather infrequent. The distribution of frequency reveals that some expressions are more appropriate in terms of their statistical occurrence. No instances of *be on the point/verge of* were detected in the corpus. Thus, some expressions appear to be absent from and thus irrelevant for the context of economic texts. Analogously, the present progressive forms are almost negligible. In addition, the detected meaning can be interpreted as both present and future in most cases (see below).

192 Instances of the subordinate present simple can be discriminated more unequivocally. Adverbial clauses introduced by *if, unless, provided that, supposing that, on condition that, when, until, before, after, the more, the –er* were detected and excerpted. As over ten thousand instances were identified, only the first two hundred instances were analysed from each category. The present simple tense was interpreted as futural if the main clause predicate comprised a modal verb (*will, shall, may, might, can, should, would, could, need*) which can all refer to the future or, at least, non-past. Hence, the statistics of the present simple are only of limited relevance in comparison with the other constructions.

193 The number of present simple forms only refers to the number of instances that are analysed in the corpus-study. The forms were excerpted selectively in accordance with the criteria described above. Hence, the number is not included in the comparative statistical study. Obviously, the subordinate present tense is the most frequent expression of futurality in the corpus, exceeding the number of 10.000 instances.

The corpus comprises written professional/academic economic text, which is very formal. Hence, contracted forms of auxiliaries are almost absent in the corpus except for the contracted *'ll*.

Forms of *will* and *shall*	
will	5987
'll	4
won't	0
shall	177
shan't	0

Table 10: Forms of will and shall

Forms of *be to*	
am to	0
'm to	0
am not to	0
'm not to	0
is to	149
's to	0
is not to	4
's not to	0
are to	83
're to	0
are not to	3
're not to	0

Table 11: Forms of *be to*

Forms of the present progressive	
am + V-ing	0
am not + V-ing	0
'm + V-ing	0
'm not + V-ing	0
is + V-ing	2
is not + V-ing	0
's + V-ing	0
's not + V-ing	0
are + V-ing	4
are not + V-ing	0
're + V-ing	0
're not + V-ing	0

Table 12: Forms of the present progressive

But the contracted forms only occur in quoted instances to simulate spoken discourse:

> ‘If you’ll let me have the money I need for that new coat, I’ll do the washing up for a whole month.’ [PRB 6]
> ‘It’ll never happen to me’ [PRB 6]
> ‘I’ll only let you buy me that coat if you let me do the washing up for a whole month.’ [PRB 6]

Most grammarians declared *shall* to be the formal substitute for *will*. Still, *will* definitely prevails substantially even though both the constructions express the same textual functions (see below).

7.2.2 Clusters of futurality in professional economic texts

Readers and authors of professional texts can observe a certain tendency to distribute tenses and relevant time expressions in accordance with some specific functions of text units. Tense is a deictic category in relation to the time of speaking (Matthews, 1997, p. 90), and deixis is a means of coherence. It can thus be presupposed that tenses will be distributed regularly within a text. We will refer to this regularity as temporal cohesion.[194]

We also adopt the concept of the time space of a text by Hoffmannová (1983). We identify text units coherent in terms of temporality. Sections of text units in which futurality occurs will be referred to as clusters. Such clusters often comprise a variety of futural expressions (see examples below), both grammatical and lexical; hence, each cluster will be analysed as a whole where appropriate. [195]

Even though we subscribe the function-to-form approach, due to manageability considerations particular attention will be devoted to the core futural expressions as defined above. The range of futural forms conveying a particular function is reduced for two practical purposes. First, futural clusters contain a great variety of forms. A profound analysis of all the forms would exceed the scope of the dissertation. Second, the corpus-based study is to provide data for subsequent empirical research that will focus on the

194 On B2 reference level, students are expected: *"to have greater control over linguistic resources and to be better able to call on them in order to organise more material into an utterance in real time, both by constructing sentences with a higher information value and by producing discourse in which a number of sentences are produced to form a coherent sequence. The principles by which this is accomplished therefore become of much greater importance than at earlier stages of learning."* (Ek et al., 2001, p. 80) Undergraduates should therefore be able to create cohesive texts, and this ability of theirs should be developed further on higher (university) levels.

195 Clusters in text units can also be identified for other time spaces. A brief outline of various clusters has been provided in Mikuláš (2014).

acquisition of the core expressions as defined by the curriculum primarily (see Chapter 5.9).

7.3 ANALYSIS OF THE TEXTUAL FUNCTIONS OF TEMPORAL EXPRESSIONS (MACROFUNCTIONS)[196]

7.3.1 Probability clusters

7.3.1.1 Hypotheses

As we have seen, expressions of futurality tend to regularly co-occur in text units. We will refer to this co-occurrence as a futurality cluster[197]. In vast majority of instances, these clusters are used as a source of hypotheses for the author to investigate a problem so that a more general axiomatic[198] proposition can be formulated. These clusters comprise mostly futural expressions conveying various degrees of epistemic modality: *A rich person **may** well favour a much higher degree of inequality than **will** a poor person. Likewise socialist governments **will** generally be in favour of a larger redistribution of income from the rich to the poor than **will**...* [PRB 6] As we can see, *may* and *will* are used to refer to the same reality, almost as synonyms.

Probability can also be expressed by other structures such as *be likely to*, which can combine with *will*: *Only if countries believe that the other countries **will** a) ratify the agreement and (b) stick to it once it is ratified **will** the agreement **be likely to** succeed.* [PRB 6] Probability clusters often constitute hypothesising and theorem-stating units. While authors hypothesise about certain regularities, they gradually come to conclusions relevant for economic theory. They formulate new theory and new axioms: *The price paid for bills **will** depend on demand and supply. For example, the more Treasury bills that the Bank of England **offers** for sale at its weekly tender of bills (i.e., the higher the supply), the lower **will** be their equilibrium price, and hence the higher **will** be their rate of return (i.e.,*

196 The terms macro- and micro-functions are used with respect to the terminology of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

197 This terminology is introduced with respect to the assumption that expert writers tend to use epistemic devices together (Hyland, 2006, p. 166). The coherent use of a wider range of epistemic expressions preserves modal harmony. Hyland calls such co-occurrences as epistemic clusters. Non-native L2 users do not combine epistemic forms correctly (Hyland et al., 1997), which will be referred to as modal disharmony.

198 By *axiom* we mean "a widely held or accepted truth or principle" (Webster's universal English Dictionary). This truth is accepted by the professional community and is not investigated any more.

their rate of interest, or 'rate of discount'). Normally, a bank ***will*** *buy commercial bills only if they* ***have been*** *first 'accepted' by another financial institution (typically an investment bank). This means that the investment bank* ***will*** *redeem the bill (i.e., pay up) on the maturity date, if the firm issuing the bill* ***defaults*** *on payment. Of course the investment bank charges for this insurance (or 'underwriting'). Bills that have been accepted in this way are known as bank bills.* [PRB 6]

As we can see, the author's main aim in this paragraph is to hypothesise about the price of bills and its dependence on demand and supply. Obviously, this is a hypothesising and theorem-stating unit. All the hypotheses are expressed by means of future *will* (being the means of superordinate futurality) and subordinate present simple tense and present perfect denoting post-indication. In probability clusters, *will* regularly co-occurs with *may*, and we can thus conclude that these means of futurality are mutually interchangeable.

7.3.1.2 Axioms

It is *will* that is frequently used in theorems[199], lemmata[200] and various propositions whose aim is to generalise empiric economic reality and research findings: *Profit is maximised at the point where an additional unit of output* ***will*** *add no more to profit – that is, where … or, from (1), where … or …* [PRB 6][201]

These propositional statements, whose truth value is declared to be always true, can form a separate section of a text. If the proposition is of great theoretic value, they can even be numbered, lettered or highlighted in frames. Axiomatic propositions often have an *if ... then* structure, in which *will* is used as a superordinate temporal framework for present simple: *The budget deficit refers to the debt that the government incurs in one year. If the government* ***runs*** *persistent deficits over many years, these debts* ***will*** *accumulate. The accumulated debt is known as the national debt.* [PRB 6]

The *be to* structure can also be used in axiomatic *if-then* propositions even as an expression of subordinate futurality. It conveys particular general or future

199 By *theorem* we mean "a proposition that can be proved from accepted principles." To assess the truth value of a theorem, a proof must be provided. (Webster's universal English dictionary)

200 *Lemma* is a proposition used to prove a principal proposition of greater significance.

201 Axioms occur together with definitions of new terms, which they instroduce, but need not be separated so clearly as in mathematics and other sciences.

requirements[202]: *If an economy **is to** achieve sustained economic growth over the longer term, there must be a sustained increase in potential output.* [PRB 6] The *be to* structure can be found in larger probability clusters together with other grammatical (*may*) and lexical means (*be likely to*): *... more borrowers **are likely to** default on payment and thus a higher CAR **may** be necessary if the bank **is to** avoid becoming insolvent. Also, in such times, borrowing companies or other banks **may** have their credit rating downgraded, giving them a higher risk.* [PRB 6]

Considering the following probability cluster, it is obvious that the author states hypotheses about the relations of people's confidence and the course of an investment curve. This hypothesising results in another hypothesis which appears to be almost axiomatic. The author ends with a conditional statement which might also be interpreted as a new economic postulate. Futurality is also expressed by means of a lexical means (*to be likely to*): *..., their confidence **may** well decrease. The investment curve **will** shift to I3 and the level of investment **will** actually fall to Q3. Monetary policy **is likely to** be effective, therefore, only if people **have** confidence in its effectiveness. ...* [PRB 6] The author's degree of certainty is so high, that the conditional clause can be interpreted in two different ways:

> **i/ postulate**: Whenever people have confidence in the effectiveness of a monetary policy, the monetary policy is effective.
> **ii/ hypothesis**: Probably, monetary policy will be effective, but people will first have to have confidence in its effectiveness.

We can thus claim that probability clusters in hypothesising and theorem-stating units are used to vary the degrees of the probability of statements to come to conclusions that seem to be true and universal, enriching the theory of economics. Futurality expressions together with other modal and lexical means are applied to reach this purpose. Axioms often comprise numerical expressions that compare various economic variables: *If LRMSC < MSC, it **will** be desirable to invest in additional capacity.* [PRB 6]

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202 The futural *be to* construction should not be mistaken for a subject complement frequently used to suggest a method or goal: *the step to, the approach to, the way to, the alternative to, the method to, the aim to*.

> *The alternative **is to** apply equity accounting but ...* [PRB 1]
> *The next step **is to** ask ourselves what are the implications of this definition.* [PRB 7]
> *One method of eliciting such values **is to** ask individuals, directly, how much they would be willing to pay to obtain a particular health improvement, or avoid a health deterioration.* [PRB6]
> *The aim **is to** assist organisations to report information that complements existing reporting standards and is consistent, ...* [PRB 1]

A wide variety of grammatical and lexical hypothetical futural expressions can be found in such clusters[203]:

> *Take the case of noise from an airport or motorway. People **could** be asked how much they **would** need to be compensated. There are two problems with this:*
> *• Ignorance. People **will not** know just how much they **will** suffer until the airport or motorway is built.*
> *• Dishonesty. People **will** tend to exaggerate the compensation they **would** need. After all, if compensation **is actually going to** be paid, people **will** want to get as much as possible. But even if it **is not**, the more people **exaggerate** the costs to themselves, the more it **is** that they **can** get the project stopped.* [PRB 6]

7.3.2 Textual reference

The function of textual reference will be used to designate instances that refer to another part of the text (intratextual reference) or as a means of external intertextuality (intertextual reference). In most instances, it is *will* which is used as a means of intratextual reference: *Their significance as far as the group income is concerned **will** be explained when we **refer to** the preparation of the annual statement of comprehensive income in the next chapter.* [PRB 1] Subordinate present simple is used in the instance above as a means of intertextual reference, too.

The length of orientation can differ depending on what the target of the reference is. Intratextuality can refer to different sections or chapters, but it can also convey imminence: *As far as this statement is concerned, the figures presented will be based on the cumulative amounts. The gross amounts due from customers **will** be as follows: ...* [PRB1]

Similarly, intratextual reference can be used to refer to various figures (tables, grids and graphs): *To aid the exposition we **will** refer to Figure 3.1, which schematically indicates various kinds of individual work history information,…* [PRB 3]

Besides *will*, *shall* is frequently used to convey intratextual reference. Instances of the progressive aspect were also found in the corpus: *From this one problem stem all the*

203 The axiomatic or hypothetical function can also be identified with the present progressive form, especially if it is used as an expression of subordinate futurality in dependent time and conditional clauses: *Since people have finite working lives and each year of education deprives them of a year of work, then, even if increasing education always increases people's earning power once they **are working**, there is an upper limit to the duration of education which is economically viable.* [PRB 3] The adverbial *always* as well as the fact that people's working lives are limited suggest that the author refers to a general and therefore timeless effect of increasing education. Thus, the hypothetical meaning of the present progressive form can convey certainty of an axiom.

other economic problems we ***shall be looking*** *at* ***throughout this book****. This central economic problem is the problem of scarcity.* [PRB 6][204]

Like *will*, *shall* also refers to immediate futurality in intratextual reference as we can see in the following instances:

> ***In this section****, we* ***shall briefly discuss*** *the target-setting policies pursued in four countries: the USA, Canada, the UK and Australia.* [PRB 3]
> *Real incomes of wage earners will be unaffected. In practice, as we* ***shall*** *see at several places* ***in this book****, in the short run wages do lag behind prices.* [PRB 6]
> *Later, we shall have to ask ourselves what exactly we mean by 'true', but we* ***shall not be dealing*** *with this question* ***here.*** [PRB 7]

Intertextual reference is also expressed when defining new economic terms. It is often accompanied by the adverbial *hereinafter* to make readers aware of the fact that a new term has just been defined. Both *will* and *shall* are used in such instances: *Let us consider for a moment the two extremes of the 'balanced diet line'. At the one end there is point (0, 0) which I* ***shall*** *call point O and at the other end there is point F (for Full) where F = (10, 5).* [PRB 7]

Besides *will* and *shall*, this defining reference is often expressed by the present simple tense (which could therefore be replaced by *will* or *shall*): *We* ***call*** *a curve which exhibits such a property convex to the origin*. [PRB 7] Still, present simple is used when referring to terms that are established and are thus perceived as common by economists: *In order to produce these commodities, we need a means of production, another economic good which we* ***call*** *labour.* [PRB 7]

Some instances of *be going to* which we found in the corpus convey the author's intention to deal with a particular problem directing the leader to a particular part of the text:

> *What we* ***are going to*** *look at in this section is a model which combines these two markets, which means that we will need only one diagram*. [PRB 6]
> *In this chapter and the next, we* ***are going to*** *look at the special role that money plays in the economy.* [PRB 6]

In comparison with *shall* and *will*, these instances are fairly rare. In addition, they seem to be a feature of an author's idiolect (in the PRB corpus, this use of *be going to* was found only in PRB 6).[205]

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204 The progressive aspect is used to highlight repetitiveness as well as duration of the action *throughout the book*.

205 *Can* referring to the ability to find necessary evidence is used as a means of intratextual reference. Such instances of *can* are not rare:

> *As* ***can*** *be seen from Figure (b), the golden rule was met over the cycle 1997/8 to 2006/7. [*PRB 6]
> *As* ***can*** *be seen from Table 10.1, exam scores are higher (on average)... [*PRB 3]

Instances of intertextual and intratextual references were identified that were expressed by means of the *be to* structure: *But possibly most revealing of the differences in approach between Marshall and Keynes* ***is to be found*** *in a letter from Marshall to – of all people – the historical economist Foxwell,19 ...* [PRB 2] This use of *be to* has an appealing function so it co-occurs with comparative and superlative forms. Analogously, it is a part of the collocation *it is to be noted* that is used as a means of intratextual reference in cleft clauses and parentheses and is fairly formal:

> *First, there is participation altruism: this arises because individuals gain utility from participating in social acts. This utility, it* ***is to be noted****, is in the participating, not in any utility from the consumption which the individual's contribution provides.* [PRB 2]
> *More significantly perhaps it* ***is to be noted*** *that in health care we are not dealing with a homogeneous commodity...* [PRB 2]

Thus *be to* is used as a means of textual reference to emphasise the importance of dealing with certain concepts in the subsequent text or to emphasise what must be stated according to the author.

7.3.3 Questions and assignments

Will can often be found in questions of a few functions. First, it can be used in assignment questions, which authors use to assign problems for potential readers[206]: *What determines the shape of the IS and LM curves? *8. Under what circumstances* ***will*** *a) a rise in investment and (b) a rise in money...?* [PRB 6]

Assignments can also be expressed by means of the imperative referring to the future: ***Show*** *how Grabbit plc. will account for the above transaction in its statement of financial position at 31 December 2008, and in its statement of comprehensive income for the year, and...* [PRB 1]

Opening questions require seeking solutions to problems, but they are answered by the author. They are asked to make readers premeditate wider aspects of some problems

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Unlike *will* and *shall, can* expresses the potentiality (see below) to find the evidence and data somewhere. Thus, this potentiality can be located out of the text. *Can* is also used as an expression as intertextual reference:

> *Note: The latest data* ***can be accessed*** *from www.bankofengland.co.uk/mfsd/iadb/NewIntermed.asp. Source: Based on data in Bankstats (Bank of England), Table B1.2.* [PRB 6]

206 Assignments can also be expressed by means of the imperative referring to the future: ***Show*** *how Grabbit plc. will account for the above transaction in its statement of financial position at 31 December 2008, and in its statement of comprehensive income for the year, and...* [PRB 1]

without having to reply. They usually open new sections of an economic text so that the author can develop ideas necessary to find appropriate explanation. Unlike assignment and opening questions, opening questions are asked to provoke readers and draw their interest in deeper thoughts of the theoretic problem. It is *will* that is used to open new hypothesising sections:

> *This may require government investment in education and training. But* ***will*** *a reduction in unemployment in the long run also lead to higher inflation?* [PRB 6]
> *This may sound very worrying.* ***Will*** *a bank have enough cash to meet its customers' demands? The answer in the vast majority of cases is yes.* [PRB 6]

In questions and assignments, the construction *be going to*[207] is often used in instances where certain 'life situations' and 'case studies' are introduced (non-factual/imaginary futurality). They express the fact that a certain person (a virtual personality) has some plans and intentions and it is the reader's task to imagine such a person and deal with their problems: *Question 1: Jane Parker* ***is going to*** *set up a new business on 1 January 2001. She estimates that her first six months in business* ***will*** *be as follows: (i) She* ***will*** *put £150,000 into a bank...* [PRB 1]

As we can see, *be going to* co-occurs with *will*. While *going to* expresses the aim of the virtual Jane Parker[208], *will* is used to make hypotheses (*She estimates...*). Similarly, *be going to* expresses a virtual Mr. Norman's intention to set up a business. While *be going to* introduces the situation, it is *will* that is then used to convey his other aims: *Question 2: Mr Norman* ***is going to*** *set up a new business in Singapore on 1 January 2008. He* ***will*** *invest $150,000 in the business on that date and has made the following estimates...* [PRB 1]

Some authors convey imminence by means of the *be about to* construction in such virtual instances*:*

> *... outline the ethical or potential ethical problem and suggest ways in which the ethical problem could be resolved or avoided: (a) Your company* ***is about to*** *sign a contract with a repressive regime in South America for equipment which could have a military use. Your own government has given you no advice ...* [PRB 1]
> *Question 6 Harry* ***is about to*** *start negotiations to purchase a controlling interest in NX, an unquoted limited liability company.* [PRB 1]

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207 The non-future present progressive form of *go* can also be found in such hypothetical situations: *John* ***is still going to*** *the same bread shop and they still have only one till and one pile of tissue paper.*

208 More hypothetical situations introducing virtual persons can be expressed by the second conditional where *was/were going to* is used (future in the past):

> *If you had £100 000 of savings, would you be prepared to lend it to a friend to buy a house if the friend* ***was going to*** *take 25 years to pay it back?* [PRB 6]

We can thus conclude that authors use the less frequent and more informal expressions of futurality when setting and describing informal virtual models and illustrations.

In some instances, the *be going to* construction is used to ask questions: *How **are** things **going to** be produced? What resources **are going to** be used and in what quantities? What techniques of production **are going to** be adopted? **Will** cars be produced by robots or by assembly line workers? **Will** electricity be produced from coal, oil, gas, nuclear fission, renewable …* [PRB 6]

Another example of futural questions is rhetorical questions, which the author does not answer immediately. They are simply asked to make points that are worth mentioning. They open a discussion and encourage the reader to a message or viewpoint. In such questions, it is *will* and *going to* futures that prevail. As we can see, the author starts such questions with the *be going to* construction[209]. As more and more questions are generated, *be going to* is replaced by *will*, even though their functions seem to be the same. Let us consider the following beginning of a chapter:

> *Microeconomics and choice*
> *Because resources are scarce, choices have to be made. There are three main categories of choice that must be made in any society:*
>
> *What goods and services **are going to** be produced and in what quantities, since there are not enough resources to produce all the things people desire? How many cars, how much wheat, how much insurance, how many video games, etc., **will be produced**?*
>
> *How **are** things **going to** be produced? What resources **are going to** be used and in what quantities? What techniques of production **are going to** be adopted? **Will** cars be produced by robots or by assembly line workers? **Will** electricity be produced from coal, oil, gas, nuclear fission, renewable resources or a mixture of these?*
>
> *For whom **are** things **going to** be produced? In other words, how **will** the nation's income be distributed? After all, the higher your income, the more you can consume of the nation's output. What **will** be the wages of farm workers, printers, footballers and accountants? How much **will** pensioners receive? How much of the nation's income **will** go to shareholders or landowners?* [PRB 6]

It is thus obvious, that the *be going to* construction opens a series of questions. The same futural meaning is then expressed by means of *will*. In some questions, the author also

209 This property of *be going to* not to be repeated in a text has been described by Quirk et al. (1985, p. 218) and Wekker (1976). For instance, *be going to* is used as an openner in weather forecasts:

> *Tomorrow **is going to** be another cold day. There **will** be snow on high ground, and many mountain roads **will** be impassable, … (Quirk, 1985, p. 218)*

explicitly paraphrases the same sentence using *be going to* in the original clause and *will* in its paraphrase.

Within assignments, prerequisites and conditions are set to better delimit the situation and to state requirements that readers should consider. Such future requirements may be conveyed by the *be to* construction:

> *The anticipated net cash inflows from the machines is now $100,000 per annum for the next three years. A market discount rate of 10% per annum* ***is to*** *be used in any...* [PRB 1].
> *Explain the conditions that must be satisfied if a non-current asset* ***is to*** *be reported in the statement of financial position as held for sale.* [PRB 1]
> *If the government* ***is to*** *adopt a target, which one should it choose? If a money supply measure* ***is to*** *be chosen, which one?* [PRB 6]

Where a prerequisite is a part of a rhetorical question, it is also expressed by means of *be to*: *Why do Keynesians argue that, even in the long run, demand-side policies* ***will*** *still be required if faster growth in aggregate supply* ***is to*** *be achieved?* [PRB 6]

7.3.4 Performative prefix[210]

Futurality is used in explicit speech acts as a segment of performative prefixes (Yule, 1996). Analogously with textual references, futural constructions in performative prefixes can be replaced by present simple forms of the same verbs. A large number of prefixes explicitly introduce assumptions:

> *In each case, we* ***will assume*** *that the market is in other respects perfect.* [PRB 6]
> *We* ***assume*** *that input prices are given, that is, the firm is not a monopsonist.* [PRB 3]

Together with *will*, *shall* can be used in performative prefixes:

> *We* ***shall assume*** *that at least in one dimension the baby develops over time.* [PRB 7]
> *We* ***shall assume*** *that firms are profit maximisers.* [PRB 6]

Even though preference of *shall* and *will* seems to be a matter of idiolect, one author can use both the forms in the same text (as can be seen in the PRB 6 instances). In addition, the author uses the *be going to* construction to prefix an assumption in another

210 The category of performative prefix could also belong among interpersonal functions as an independent category that is used to mitigate the truth value of propositions.

section of the text: *We **are going to assume** that consumers behave rationally, but that does not mean that they have perfect information.* [PRB 6]

All the above instances can also be expressed as implicit speech acts, which differ from the prefixed acts in terms of their truth value:

> *The market is in other respect perfect.*
> *Input prices are given, that is, the firm is not a monopsonist.*
> *At least one dimension, the baby develops over time.*
> *Firms are profit maximisers.*
> *Consumers behave rationally, but that does not mean that they have perfect information.*

It becomes apparent that textual functions can be classified into two groups with respect to the internal-external time dichotomy (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). While probability clusters (hypotheses and axioms), questions and assignments refer to external time (time of events), textual reference and performative prefix are categories of internal time. It is the extracting of temporal meaning in the functional categories that enables us to establish such a sharp internal-external distinction.

7.4 ANALYSIS OF EXPERIENTIAL FUNCTIONS (TEMPORALITY FUNCTIONS)

We will now consider another function of the expressions of futurality that conveys the temporal, i.e., futural meaning. All the levels (reality, realisation and reference) will be analysed with all their dimensions (orientation, indication, conjoint and disjoint character).

7.4.1 Analysis of frameworks

First and foremost, it is obvious that most expressions of futurality in economic texts are framed within actual reality (i.e., the absolute time is negotiated by the author and the reader as 'now and here'). No instances of futurality within split frameworks were found in the corpus. Only a few occurrences of disjoint frameworks were detected as direct speech is rather infrequent in professional texts. Such instances occur mainly in case studies and applications (as a means of non-factual/imaginary futurality):

> *Let us assume that Warren works full time and Judy works part time. As a result Warren earns more than Judy. He earns YW; she earns YJ. If each spent their own incomes on themselves alone, they would consume at point a.*

*… In the case of 'extreme love', where each partner would prefer the other to have more than him- or herself, point eW would be above point eE, and point eJ would be below point eE. In this case, each would be trying to persuade the other to have more than he or she wanted. Here a different type of negotiation would be needed. 'I'**ll** only let you buy me that coat if you let me do the washing up for a whole month.'*
*… Some interesting conclusions can be drawn from this analysis: Income redistribution (i.e., consumption redistribution) within the family can be to the benefit of all the members. In the case we have been considering, both Warren and Judy gain from a redistribution of income from point a to point eW. The only area of contention is between points eW and eJ. Here negotiation would have to take place. This might be in return for some favour. 'If you**'ll** let me have the money I need for that new coat, I**'ll** do the washing up for a whole month.' …* [PRB 6]
*The empirical evidence thus suggests that these workers would on average be indifferent between having £150 (1982 prices) or a reduction in risk of 1 in 10,000. However, this assumes that workers make choices with reference to the objective risks of the occupation, whereas cognitive dissonance ('It**'ll** never happen to me') may be common (Akerlof and Dickens, 1982).* [PRB 5]

As we have seen above, one of the main textual functions of the constructions of futurality is to create clusters within hypothesising sections: *This **will** depend on things such as the state of business confidence, something that is notoriously difficult to predict. How **will** a business respond to price changes by its rivals? This **will** often depend on how it thinks its rivals themselves **will** react to its own response.* [PRB 6] These hypotheses convey futurality within the actual reality framework ('now and here' reality). Their time of utterance with respect to the reality is perceived as present, but the utterance itself hypothesises about some future action, event or state. The orientation of reference is thus future. In most instances, no indication is necessarily present. In the example above, the author states a few hypotheses and uses a question to generate some of them. The hypotheses lack in any indication as they can hardly be predicted.

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

In most instances, no length of orientation is proposed. The reason of this absence of length lies in the almost omnitemporal and axiomatic character of hypotheses. They tend

to express general inclinations and dispositions that can and will occur whenever certain conditions are fulfilled.

Still, in some cases, where it is necessary to convey imminence, the structure *be about to* is used in hypotheses: *The Internet **is about to** change this by focusing on how to report rather than what to report. It has the capacity to give investors the means to readily analyse ...* [PRB1]

This imminence is pre-indicated in a way at the same time. The author supports his view by some present evidence (in the instance above it is the capacity of the Internet). The framework table might thus be as follows:

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Present
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

The pre-indicated present evidence can arise from some present beliefs[211] based on some present evidence:

> *If people **believe** that share prices **are about to** rise rapidly on the stock market, they will buy shares and hold smaller speculative balances of money.* [PRB 6]
> *(a) the rate of income tax rises; (b) the economy begins to recover from recession; (c) people **anticipate** that the rate of inflation **is about to** rise; (d) the government redistributes income from the rich to the poor?* [PRB 6]
> *For example, if speculators believe that the price of British Airways shares **is about to** rise, they will buy BA shares.* [PRB 6]
> *How does this work? Assume that a share price is currently £10 per share and traders on the stock market believe that the price **is about to** fall. They want to take advantage of this but don't possess any.* [PRB 6]

In some contexts, imminence is expressed explicitly (*immediate interest of loans that are about to mature*): *... used is to calculate the ratio of cash flow from operations less dividend payments to total debt and, of more **immediate** interest, to loans that **are about to** mature. The ratio can be adjusted to reflect the company's current position.* [PRB 1] But the construction of *be going to* in academic economic texts is predominantly used to

211 Similarly, the past *be about to* can be found to express past imminence and pre-indication:

> *... problems of excessive or insufficient international liquidity; and that speculation could be very severe if people **came to believe** that a fixed rate **was about to** break down.* [PRB 6]

The past pre-indication is suggested by people's belief probably based on evidence. The imminence results in speculations and urgency.

suggest some present evidence: *Put broadly, Smith felt that the division of labour must give rise to the institutions of private property, the market and competition as a means of coordinating economic activities. While Plato felt that division of labour gives rise to communalism – which should not be confused with communism – sharing and cooperation. Evidently, the answers to questions like 'how much to produce?', 'what determines prices?' and 'how can I make money?'* ***are going to*** *be fundamentally different in the two systems. In the end, whatever it is that we are doing, the advice and the recommendations of the economist are all derivatives of the same principles which guide and direct the social organisation of economic activities.* [PRB 7]

The author first introduces some facts that predispose the present evidence which is later marked by *be going to*. This structure is therefore introduced by disjuncts such as *obviously*, *evidently*, and *clearly*. In such instances, the description of frameworks is as follows:

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Present
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

Regarding the length of the orientation, it is not explicitly marked with any adverbial. We can conclude that the present evidence is so clear according to the author that it immanently implies differences in the two systems. In some instances, present evidence is explicitly given by economic forecasts and predictions: *If forecasts suggest that inflation* ***is going to*** *be off-target, interest rate changes are announced, and then appropriate open-market operations are conducted to support the new interest rate.* [PRB 6] They seem not to provide any explicit information about the remoteness of the future orientation.

But it becomes clear that the *be going to* construction in the following case is not immediate: *In the UK, the eurozone and many other countries, the government or central bank sets a target for the rate of inflation for* ***the medium term****. In the UK, the target is 2 per cent CPI inflation in two years' time plus or minus 1 per cent. In the eurozone, the target is a rate of CPI inflation below, but close to, 2 per cent over* ***the medium term*** *(where the precise period is unspecified). If forecasts suggest that inflation* ***is going to*** *be off-target, interest rate changes are announced, and then appropriate open-market*

operations are conducted to support the new interest rate. The use of such targets is examined in section 20.4. [PRB 6]

It is now obvious that the period within which any prognoses might be done is medium-term. In terms of economic analyses, medium-term periods last between five to ten years. We can thus state that *be going to* is used in economic texts to mark present evidence primarily rather than suggest imminence.

Similarly, the *be to* form presupposes knowledge of certain requirements that must be achieved and fulfilled at present or in the future. Thus, certain present pre-indication is conveyed: *Thus lower interest rates are associated with higher national income, if equilibrium **is to** be maintained in the goods market (I = S).*[212]

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future/present
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Present
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

The duty can be expressed by means of an explicit deadline. Thus, the length of orientation need not refer to imminence:

> *The initial loan on 1 June 20X5 was £11 million at a fixed interest rate of 10% per annum. The total amount of the interest **is to** be paid at the end of the loan period on 31 May 20X9. The current bank lending rate is 7% per annum.* [PRB 1]
> *Government grants of $85,000 have been received in respect of plant purchased during the year and are shown in the trial balance. One-fifth **is to** be taken into profit in the current year.* [PRB 1]

Imminence can also be expressed by *shall* as we can see below: *Thus, the entity **shall** recognise immediately the services received and a liability to pay for them.* [PRB 1]

In professional economic texts, the present progressive form is not infrequent. It occurs as an expression of the present habitual progressive aspect (Quirk et al., 1985), i.e., with dynamic verbs referring to actions that occur repeatedly over a limited period of present time: *Corporate governance best practice **is being regularly reviewed and improved** as, for example, steps being taken to improve the ability of NEDs to exercise an effective corporate governance role.* [PRB 1]

212 ~ If there exist any requirements to maintain equilibrium in goods market. (i.e., if *I* is to be equal to *S*.)

Analogously to other minor expressions of futurality, the progressive form occurs mainly in instances of imaginary realisation framework in case studies:

> *The finance director of the Small Machine Parts Ltd company* ***is considering*** *the acquisition of a lease of a small workshop in a warehouse complex that* ***is being redeveloped*** *by City Redevelopers Ltd at a steady rate over a number of years. City Redevelopers* ***are granting*** *such leases for five years.* [PRB 1]
> *R. Johnson* ***is planning*** *to emigrate and* ***is considering*** *disposing of his shareholding. He has had approaches from three parties, who are...* [PRB 1]

Explicit time adverbials can co-occur to define the time span of the regularity:

> *As this text* ***is being written*** *in early 2010, the IASB is being put Financial instruments under pressure from the G20 nations and the European Union to look …* [PRB 1]
> *At the moment IMACE* ***is dealing*** *with 200 to 300 problems per year but this is more a reflection of the numbers of chartered accountants in business than a reflection …* [PRB 1]

Such instances of the present progressive form can also be found in if-clauses: *If the company* ***is trading*** *in the certificates, they are financial instruments under IAS 39 Financial Instruments: …* [PRB 1] It co-occurs with the present simple tense to emphasise currentness of the action or habit:

> *The three possible situations are:*
> ***1*** *If the company* ***receives*** *the certificates free from the government, their value in the financial statements should be zero. It would be unreasonable to put a value on them in the company's financial statement (e.g., number of tonnes of CO2 × CO2 emissions value per tonne). This would be 'boosting the statement of financial position'.*
> ***2*** *If the company* ***is trading*** *in the certificates, they are financial instruments under IAS 39 Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement. They can be valued at cost, with impairment if their value becomes less than cost. However, it is probably more appropriate to treat them as 'fair value through the profit or loss', value them at market value, and include profits or losses in the statement of comprehensive income.*
> ***3*** *If a company* ***buys*** *the certificates to use in its business, they could be accounted for like inventory and valued at the lower of original cost and net realisable value. When the CO2 emission takes place, their cost will be included in cost of sales*. [PRB 1]

While the acts of buying and receiving are immutable states, the present progressive form is used contrastively to suggest a fact that is limited to the present situation: *In case the business* ***is doing*** *so* ***at present****, the object of trading must be instruments under IAS 39.* [PRB 1]

Similarly, examples that can be interpreted as expressions of the event progressive aspect (Quirk, 1985) were found:

> *You are a member of a team that **is investigating** the possible purchase of Choggerell, a limited liability company that manufactures …* [PRB 1]
> *... it is likely that the opinion will be used to undermine an accountant who **is trying** to do the right thing*. [PRB 1]

However, the above examples are expressions of present. Both their time of utterance and time of performance are present with respect to the presupposed framework of reality.

Only a few cases appear to be ambiguous between the present and future interpretation: *A senior executive is given a first class seat to travel to Chicago to attend an industry fair where the company **is launching** a new product. The executive decides to cash in the ticket and to get two economy class tickets so her boyfriend can go with her. The company picks up the hotel bill and she reimburses the difference between what it would have cost if she went alone and the final bill. The frequent flier points were credited to her personal frequent flier account. Would it make any difference if the company **were not launching** a new product at the fair?* [PRB 1]

The act of launching can be realised currently by the company, or the utterance can refer to an arrangement and plan of the launching. But as the senior executive has not come to the fair yet, the launching can be supposed to take place in the future. It also depends on whether the trade has already started, which is not clear. The past progressive form in the if-clause can also refer to the hypothetical present or past. If the future meaning is taken into consideration, the framework is as follows:

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future/present
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Present
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

The situation also provides information about the length of orientation. Obviously, the senior executive has been given a seat to travel to the fair, so s/he is about to leave for Chicago. The act of launching is therefore likely to start in not such a distant future. Still, it is not possible to call this occurrence as an instance of imminence.

The progressive form also occurs in subordinate time clauses to replace the future progressive tense. Thus, its temporal interpretation corresponds to the meaning and

function conveyed by the progressive future form: *Since people have finite working lives and each year of education deprives them of a year of work, then, even if increasing education always increases people's earning power once they* ***are working****, there is an upper limit to the duration of education which is economically viable.* [PRB 3] The instance of the progressive form can be interpreted as follows: People will be working with higher salaries as education always increases their earning power. The expression is devoid of intention. The author only asserts the state of affairs and ongoing happening as Leech (2004) suggests. Unlike the present simple form, the subordinate present progressive form in if-clauses is also used in most instances to mark that the action *is* or *will be* in progress hypothetically[213]: *It is important, therefore, for all of the other users to be aware that this is one of the principles. If they require specific disclosures that might be relevant to them, they will need to take their own steps to obtain them, particularly where there is a conflict of interest. For example, if a closure* ***is being planned*** *by the directors, it may be in the investors' interest for the news to be delayed as long as possible to minimise the cost to the company; employees, suppliers, customers and the public must not expect any assistance from the financial statements – their information needs are not the primary concern.* [PRB 1]

Post-indication is conveyed through the future perfect tense (*will* + perfect infinitive). Though, this form is not frequent in the corpus (43 occurrences): *By 2010 mothers in the UK* ***will have become*** *entitled to 52 weeks' paid maternity leave while fathers receive two weeks' paternity pay.* [PRB 6]

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Future[1]
Post-indication	Future[2]

The form converts into the present perfect form in if-clauses as a means of temporal subordination: *This should ensure an accurate calculation of earnings per share. But there*

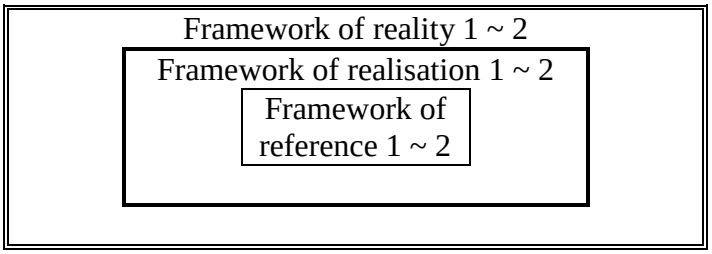
213 There are instances in which both the present simple and the present progressive form are in contrast emphasise the progressive and non-progressive reality: *If firms* ***do not use*** *marginal revenue and marginal cost concepts in setting their prices, or if they* ***are not aiming*** *to achieve maximum profits, how do they choose the price to charge? As we shall see, firms often base their prices on average cost.* [PRB 6]

is a weakness here. If assets ***have increased*** *in value without revaluations, then depreciation* ***will be based on*** *the historical cost.* [PRB 1]

7.4.2 Subordinate and superordinate futurality

In the PRB corpus, the instances of subordinate futurality were found in: adverbial time and conditional clauses as well as in comparative clauses. Some occurrences were elliptical: *Problems of demand inelasticity. The less elastic the demand for the product, the less effective* ***will*** *a tax be in cutting production and hence in cutting pollution.* [PRB 6]

In most cases, the temporal subordination can be found on all the levels, i.e., within all the frameworks. Thus, the frameworks of futural expressions are often perfectly conjoint: *If the above condition* ***is satisfied*** *then both groups* ***will*** *acquire education and the firm's conditional probabilistic beliefs* ***will*** *be confirmed.* [PRB 3]



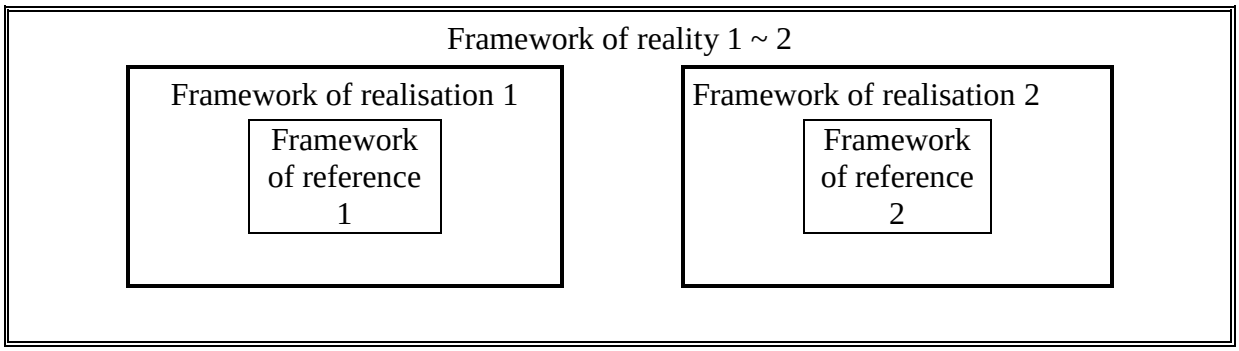
As we can see in the instances above, theoreticians present, describe and interpret certain conditions under which theoretical expectations can be approved and hold true. Revealing these necessary and sufficient conditions is one of the objectives of economic research. The conditions and their results shall regularly co-occur, which is why perfectly conjoint frameworks are found in theoretical economic texts.

Similarly, theoreticians relate two different states together, one depending on the other. Such hypotheses describe and interpret how a change in one state affects another state. In the following extract, we can find such a relation in a comparative clause: *The further to the right of the EE line the current position* ***is****, the faster* ***will*** *the EE line shift to the left.* [PRB 6] Sometimes, the extent of the changes is expressed algebraically by means of various formulae: *... TC (3) or, dividing both sides by quantity, as long as AR ≥ AC (where AC in this case is long-run average cost). The firm, therefore,* ***should*** *shut down if* ***(4) AR < AC (6) (2) TR − (TFC + TVC) < 0****. If the firm shuts down, TR and TVC* ***will*** *be zero, but ...* [PRB 6]. The frameworks of both the states are perfectly conjoint. The whole

clause might be interpreted as follows: The current position of the EE line **will** be further to the right. Simultaneously, the EE line **will** shift to the left. In the comparative clause, the syntactic subordination also requires temporal subordination. Therefore, the subordinate future is expressed by means of present simple tense. Similarly, in time clauses:

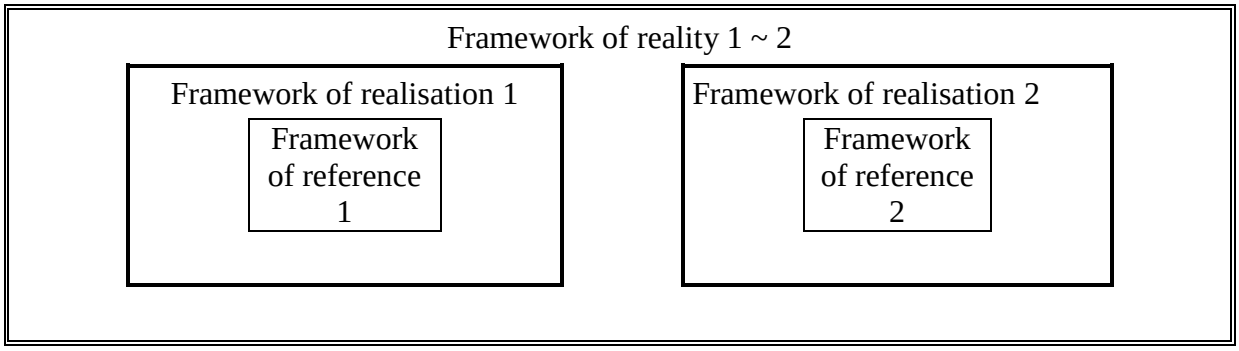
> *As the number of boats **increases** and fish stocks **decline**, so each extra boat entering **will** add less and less to the total catch.* [PRB 6]
> *People **will not** know just how much they **will** suffer until the airport or motorway **is built**.* [PRB 6]

Another type of syntactic subordination in which futurality occurred was in nominal (interrogative) clauses: *Whether the EE line **will** actually shift to the right or left **depends** on which of these two forces is the stronger.* [PRB 6] In such as instance, the realisations and references are disjoint. While the main clause refers to the present state, the subordinate action refers to the future.



Another instance of temporal subordination can be found in clauses where the subordinate state is assumed to be present. Thus, the syntactically sub- and super-ordinate states will have disjoint realisation and reference frameworks:

> *If a union **has** monopoly power, its power to raise wage rates **will** be limited if the employer **operates** under perfect or monopolistic competition.* [PRB 6]
> *If a firm **faces** a shortage of workers with very specific skills, it **may** decide to undertake the necessary training itself.* [PRB 6]



The first clause might be interpreted as follows:

> a/ A union **has** a monopoly power, and the employer **operates** under perfect or monopolistic competition now. It is likely that its power to raise wage rates **will** be limited in the course of time.
> b/ A union **will** have monopoly power and the employer **will** operate under perfect or monopolistic competition. Then, its power to raise wage **will** probably be limited.

Thus, in some instances it can be unclear which temporal interpretation is appropriate. In general (non-academic) contexts, *will* and *may* would probably be replaced by the *be going to* construction since the subordinate clause indicates some present evidence. Since future reality is always unclear and is subject to the author's belief, expressions of futurality often result in vagueness.

This present versus future interpretation arises from the fact that authors give examples to simulate real situations. They thus want readers to perceive the reality to be present, even though they hypothesise about all future eventualities at the same time. They thus present certain prototypical situations within which the reader perceives the reality as present: *Such arguments are also partly responsible for dictating the level of aggregation which dominates most of the economic analysis in this text. Since economics is concerned with choice then it is of interest to examine choice in circumstances where the consumer is ill. Economics assumes normally that the choices which are most consistent with maximising utility are those made under conditions of full information. However, once an illness* ***is contracted*** *it is unlikely that the consumer* ***is going to*** *be willing, even if he* ***is*** *physically able, to start collecting the necessary information to allow an optimising choice to be made. Moreover such informational requirements are likely to be considerable—which is after all the reason for training doctors. The trained doctor not only holds the information required by the consumer but also supplies the treatment. Such considerations obviously affect the basic choices over the form and amount of health care consumed. A large part of the economic analysis of health care discussed in the text is concerned with the implications for choice under such circumstances. In particular, therefore, we shall be concerned with consumer behaviour and the behaviour of producers.* [PRB 5] The author thus wants the reader to imagine a present situation. We might interpret the extract as follows: Imagine that an illness is contracted (now) and the consumer is physically able (now), I really doubt the consumer is going to be willing (then, in the future) to start collecting all the necessary information…

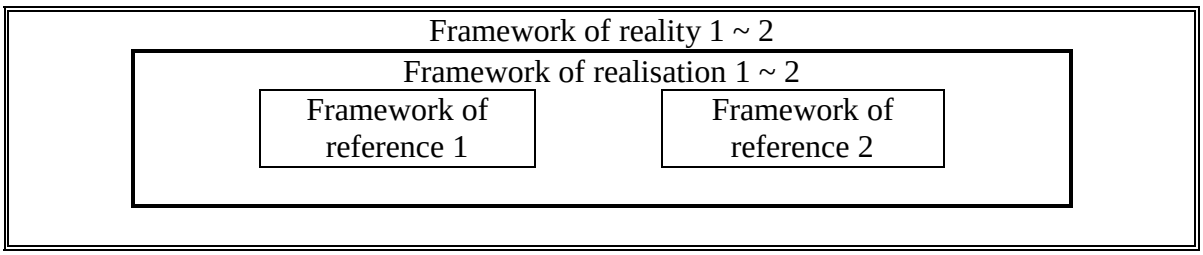
A perfectly conjoint framework can also be found in progressive instances: *Clearly, if a firm* ***is getting*** *increasing returns to scale from its factors of production, then as it produces more it* ***will be using*** *smaller and smaller amounts of...* [PRB 6] In this case, the processes of getting and using are not only conjoint on all framework levels but also parallel. Subordinate futurality is expressed by means of the progressive present tense to mark this simultaneity.

Some instances with *be going to* in an if-clause were also found: *The government issues companies with free certificates allowing them to emit a stated amount of CO2. If a company* ***is not going to*** *emit that quantity of* CO_2*, it* ***can*** *sell the excess in the market, which companies exceeding the limit can buy.* [PRB 1] Both *can* and *be going to* structures refer to the future; still, the meaning of *can* is broader, referring to non-past evidence (now and in the future). *Be going to* construction is used to mark an intention of a company not to emit a certain amount of CO_2 in the future and present evidence suggesting that the company will not emit such an amount. *Can* is used as a means of possibility and permission (it might be replaced by *may* or *will*). It can be paraphrased as: *It is/will be possible to sell...* or *It is/will be allowed to sell...* Thus, both the frameworks of realisation and reference are disjoint.

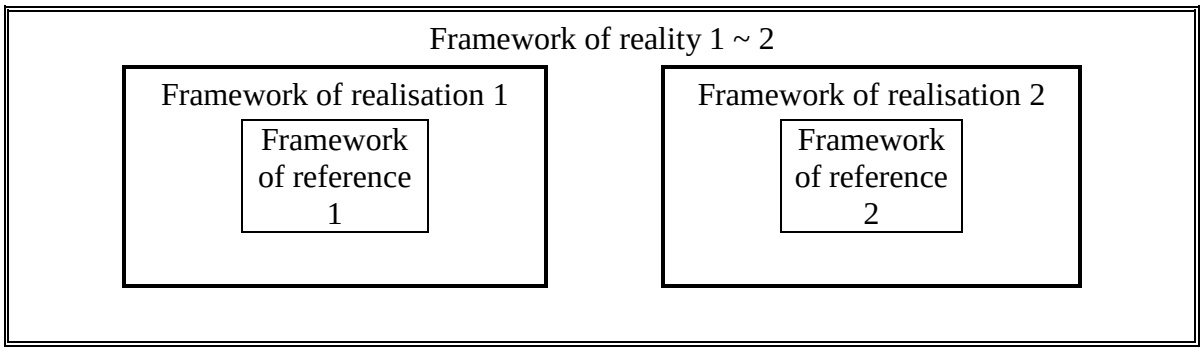
The present superordinate and future subordinate reference is clearer in the following instance: *Then there is the question of the distribution of income between present and future generations. If non-renewable resources* ***are going to*** *be expensive in the future,* ***should*** *we not be conserving these resources today in order to help our descendants?* [PRB 6] The realisation as well as reference frameworks are disjoint. *Be going to* refers to the future (which is also explicitly marked by the adverbial) and marks the existence of some present evidence of the negative trend (it is pre-indicated). *Should* is explicitly delimited to refer to the present (the progressive aspect suggesting that the conservation is urgent at present).

Another instance of subordinate *be going to* found in the PRB corpus was as follows: *People will tend to exaggerate the compensation they would need. After all, if compensation* ***is actually going to*** *be paid, people* ***will*** *want to get as much as possible. But even if it is not, the more people exaggerate the costs to themselves, the more likely it is that they can get the project stopped.* [PRB 6] In this case, *be going to* is used to indicate present evidence and refers to the future. *Will* is a means of pure future (prediction), as *want* bears the modality meaning. Obviously, their times of utterance and performance appear to be the same. Thus, their frameworks of realisation are conjoint. Due to the

present indication of *be going to* (present evidence that compensation is to be paid), the reference frameworks are disjoint. The model of frameworks is therefore as follows:



The present progressive form can also occur in a dependent clause: *Since people have finite working lives and each year of education deprives them of a year of work, then, even if increasing education always increases people's earning power once they* ***are working****, there is an upper limit to the duration of education which is economically viable.* [PRB 3] In such a case, it replaces the future progressive form to convey chronological succession. This subordinate present progressive form lacks in intention. Education always comes before the working process (the act of depriving). Thus the progressive form refers to what comes after the educational process. If the futural interpretation of the act of working is considered, then the realisation framework of the working life (1) and education and the framework of working (2) are disjoínt (as their times of performance are different):



Unlike many grammarians, we managed to find an example of the *be going to* construction used with a hypothetical prefix (*it is unlikely*). In addition, the construction embeds a stative verb together with an expression of willingness. Thus, this use of *going* to is rather an expression of certainty based on some evidence. In addition, the if-clause does not itself formulate the present evidence here, which some authors claim to be the condition for the use of *be going to* in the superordinate clause: *However, once an illness* ***is contracted*** *it is unlikely that the consumer* ***is going to be willing****, even if he* ***is*** *physically*

able, to start collecting the necessary information to allow an optimising choice to be made. [PRB 5]

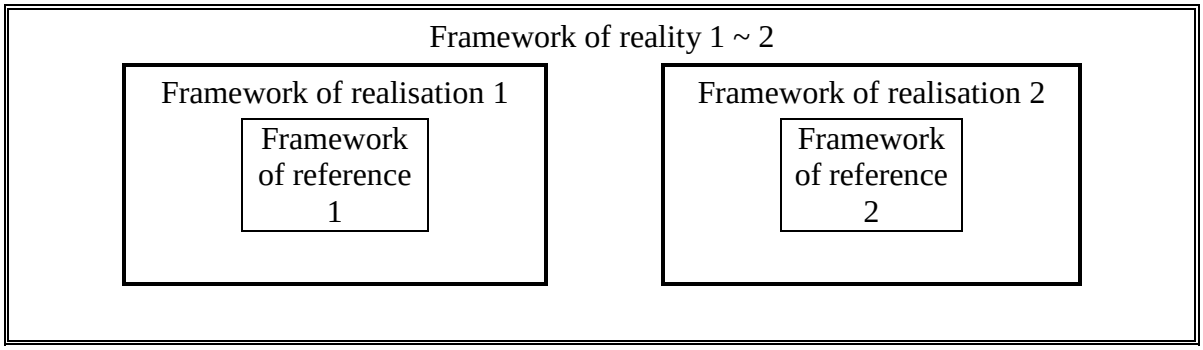
It is not only *be going to* construction that can be found in subordinate conditional clauses: *The effect of high minimum prices will vary between products, depending on whether the country is a net importer or self-sufficient. Let us consider each case in turn. … Assuming that the minimum price is above the world price, the government will need to impose customs duties (known alternatively as tariffs or import levies) on imported products to bring them up to the required price. Given that the world price* ***will*** *fluctuate, these import levies* ***would*** *need to be variable.* [PRB 6] In this case, it is obvious that futuralities expressed by the superordinate and the subordinate clause differ. They both refer to the future, the superordinate construction conveying a more hypothetical shading by means of *would*. This hypothetical differentiation is thus expressed by two different means. The authors might paraphrase the sentence as follows: Given that the world price **fluctuates**, these import levies **will** need to be variable. But this combination does not express the desired degree of probability together with futurality. *Will* conveys a more constative meaning in comparison with *would*. At the same time, the conditional clause expresses a certain possibility of the fluctuation. Thus the use of subjunctive would be inappropriate either.[214] Similarly, the following instance marks the deviations in temporal as well as modal dependence: *If this analysis is correct, that is, if a reduction in wages* ***will*** *reduce the aggregate demand for goods, what assumption* ***must*** *we make about the relative proportions of wages and profits that are spent…* ? [PRB 6] While *will* in the superordinate clause is more hypothetical and refers to the future possibility, the superordinate *must* is resolute and refers to the present or non-past (disjoint realisation frameworks). Analogously, a similar modal discrepancy can be found in the following instance referring to the future: *If, however, another firm* ***could*** *take over from it with little difficulty, it* ***will*** *behave much more like a competitive firm.* [PRB 6]

214 This example shows that syntactic subordination and dependence can convey various kinds of semantic dependence. The following categories can be identified:

- Temporal dependence is based on temporal subordination when the subordinate temporal reference is constrained and predetermined by the superordinate: *He would have learnt to play a musical instrument if he had had the chance as a child.*
- Causal dependence is based on the cause-effect relation of two actions, i.e., the fact that one action is a result of another (which is its cause): *If he eats too much* (cause), *he will put on weight* (effect).
- Modal dependence is based on modal harmony across the text. For instance, consequences are not supposed to be less hypothetical than their pre-conditions: *If I were younger, I would leave for another country.*

Deviations from the dependences are marked explicitly as in the example provided.

As we have claimed above, it is the *be to* construction that is frequently used in subordinate conditional clauses to set requirements that are supposed to be fulfilled[215]: *Different amounts and combinations of inputs **will** lead to different amounts of output. If output **is to** be produced efficiently, then inputs **should** be combined in the optimum proportions.* [PRB 6] The author creates a hypothetical, almost axiomatic, proposition. As inputs and outputs create a progression of actions (inputs come before outputs and their times of performance are therefore different), the if-then proposition can thus be claimed to be disjoint on both the reference and realisation levels:



The sentence could be paraphrased as follows: First, input must/will be combined in the optimum proportions, because output is/will be required to be produced efficiently.

Similarly, a prerequisite is expressed by *be to* in the following sentence so that the reference and realisation frameworks are disjoint: ... *investment in education **needs** to be decreased if an efficient optimal growth and development path **is to** be attained.* [PRB 3] In this instance, the times of realisations of decreasing and attaining are reverse, i.e. *decreasing* should come before *attaining*.[216] Inherently, the meaning of *be to* presupposes a present indication given by requirements that are delimited (known and required) at present. As a matter of fact, the pre-indication is expressed explicitly in the superordinate clause[217].

215 The requirement and desirability, referred to as appropriateness, follow from external circumstances and authorities. *Be to* is used in an if-clause to convey the same meaning as *should* (Dušková, 1988, p. 199). But *should* often co-occurs in the main clause. Thus, the use of *be to* in the if-clause can arise from stylistic concinnity to avoid repetitiveness. Generally, the pattern can be as follows:

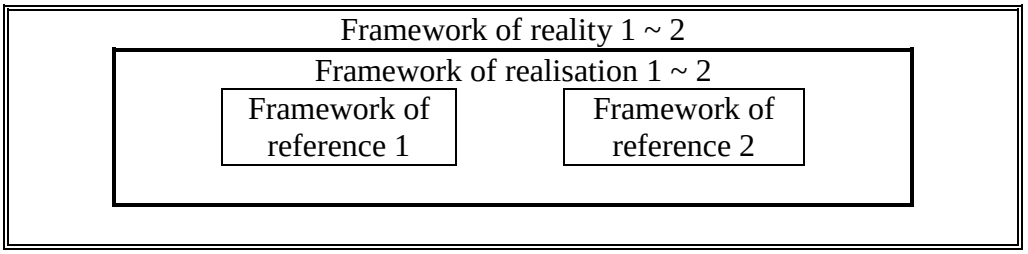
If + *be to* (pre-indicated future), should/must (appropriacy and necessity as a present pre-indication)

216 This time discrepancy is described by some authors. Hewings (1999, p. 30) asserts that be to in if-clauses is used to say that "something must take place first (in the main clause) before something else can take place (in the if-clause)."

217 Analogously to pre-indications expressed in an if-clause for *be going to* in the main clause:

If + present simple (present pre-indication), + *be going to* (pre-indicated future)

In the following instance, it can be expected that the times of performances (requiring policies while achieving certain growth) are the same. Still, the *be to* structure pre-indicates requirements that are claimed at present: *Why do Keynesians argue that, even in the long run, demand-side policies* ***will*** *still be required if faster growth in aggregate supply* ***is to*** *be achieved?* [PRB 6] Thus, the reference frameworks still remain disjoint[218]:



Subordinate present simple tense also co-occurs with superordinate lexical futurality. It is not the matrix time but the complement time that refers to the future in such instances. As we have claimed above, the matrix present represents present pre-indications for the complement future. Thus, the interpretation of such subordinate futurality is manifold.

a/ *If it tries to charge more, then customers are likely to turn to rival suppliers.* [PRB 6] ~ If there exist attempts that the supplier charges more, then customers probably turn to other suppliers.

"tries"

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Present
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Present
Post-indication	Un-marked

218 In case of more hypothetical subjunctive form, the sequence of the sub- and super-ordinate futurality is not reverse as the superordinate future is a consequence of the subordinate action:

If the UK were to adopt the euro, there would be a much reduced role for the Bank of England. [PRB 6]

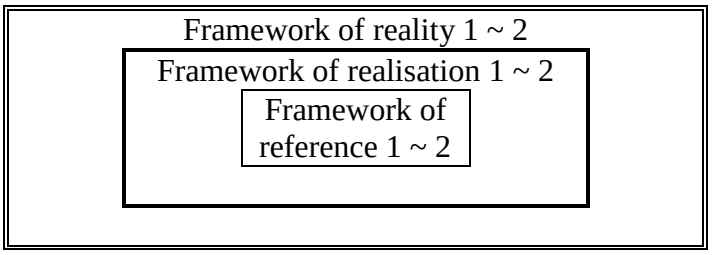
For example, if there were to be a fall of 10% in 20X9 resulting from the cut in advertising, what would be the impact on operating profit and interest cover? [PRB 1]

If the government were to cut money supply in an attempt to reduce prices, the major effect might be to reduce output and employment instead. [PRB 6]

"turn"

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Present
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Present
Post-indication	Un-marked

Hence, their frameworks of realisation and reference are conjoint:

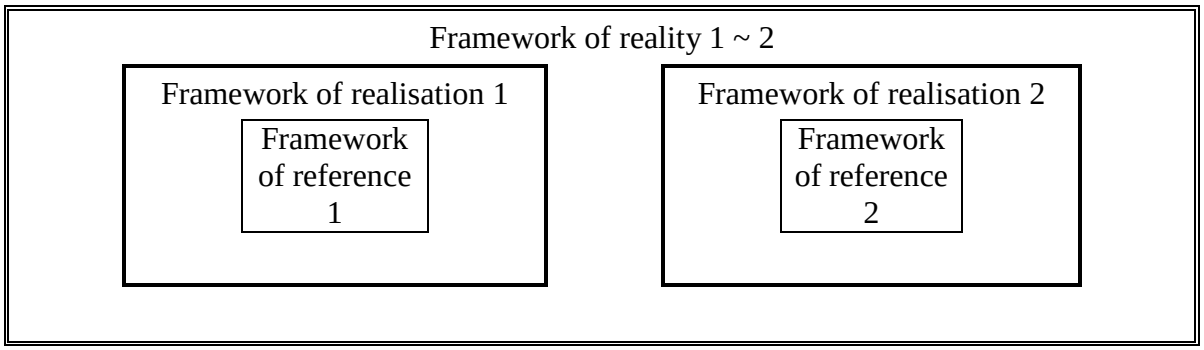


b/ *If it tries to charge more, then customers are likely to turn to rival suppliers.* [PRB 6] ~ If there exist attempts that the supplier charges more, then customers will probably turn to other suppliers.

"turn"

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

In this case, the realisation frameworks are disjoint:



c/ *If it tries to charge more, then customers are likely to turn to rival suppliers.* [PRB 6] ~ Any supplier will charge more and, consequently, customers will turn to rival suppliers. In any case, due to the causative relation of the clauses, if the subordinate present tense refers to the future, then the superordinate expressions must also refer to the future. The future interpretation is more probable with respect to the author hypothesising towards the future in the text that follows: *But what will the individual supplier's supply curve look like?*

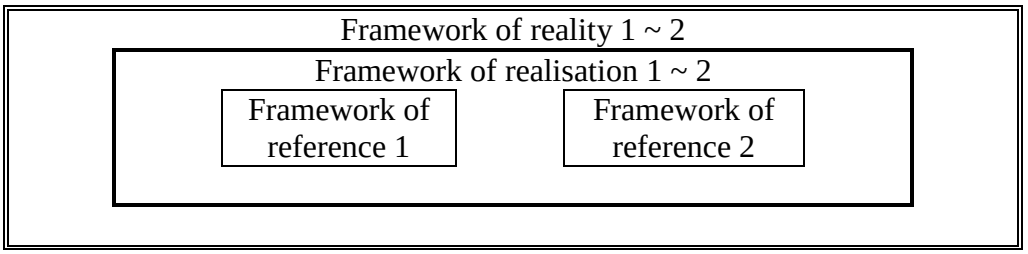
"tries"

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Un-marked
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

"turn"

Framework of realisation	
Time of performance	Future
Time of utterance	Present
Framework of reference	
Pre-indication	Present
Orientation of reference	Future
Post-indication	Un-marked

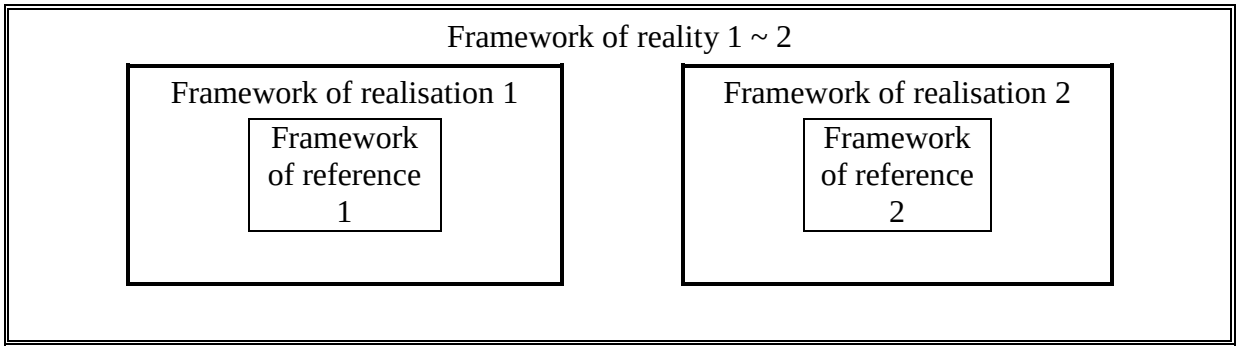
In this case, only reference frameworks are disjoint due to the present pre-indication of "turning":



A number of such instances can be identified in the corpus:

> *If aggregate demand rises, people are likely to buy more imports. In other words, part of the extra expenditure will go on Japanese LCD TVs, German cars...* [PRB 6]
>
> *If a company is successful, it is likely to find raising extra finance easier; it may be able to use its power more effectively to out-compete rivals.* [PRB 6]
>
> *In reality, if a country joins a customs union, the curves are likely to shift.* [PRB 6]

In some cases, the difference between the two interpretations is made clear by means of appropriate adverbials: *If a good is scarce in one place, while it is not scarce in some other place, it will still be considered an economic good. Similarly, if a good is scarce today, but not likely to be scarce at some point in the future, it is considered an economic good today. [PRB 6]* In this instance, the realisation frameworks are disjoint:



7.5 ANALYSIS OF INTERPERSONAL FUNCTIONS (MICROFUNCTIONS)

In this section, various communicative functions will be enumerated.[219] We will be concerned not only with grammatical means (core expressions) but also other, namely lexical, means.[220] It will become obvious that futurality can be conveyed by a number of "peripheral" expressions. The lexical means will only be enlisted and a few exemplars

219 Čmejrková (1986, p. 196) asserts that functions of tenses must be explained not only on the basis of text composition and its type but also on the basis of the communicative purpose and intention of the author.

220 We comply with the claim that grammatical and lexical means of temporality (futurality) cannot be isolated as they co-establish the time space of a text. In addition, certain patterns of lexical and grammatical temporal (futural) expressions regularly co-occur. Deviation from the mutual co-occurrence can result in incompatible combinations. Such incompatibilities create incoherent text units. (Hoffmannová, 1983, p. 57)

excerpted from the corpus will be provided. A detailed analysis of lexical futurality exceeds the scope of the dissertation.

It is necessary to emphasise that the interpretation of complement time is always subject to the meaning of matrix time. Similarly, the interpretation of *will* analysed through the functional approach (Leech et al., 2002) does reflect the lexical meaning of the lexical verbs. It is another reason why such functional categories are inconsistent. The categories of microfunctions enumerated therefore overlap and need not be disjointed perfectly.

7.5.1 Purpose, aim, plan

This category of communicative functions referring to the future is based on the fact that future actions can be aimed and planned. Futurality arises from purposes that need to be fulfilled. This category certainly covers actions and events that are both intended and unintended.

Plans and aims are expressed by means of the present progressive form and the *be going to* structure as explained and exemplified in the theoretical part. As has been shown by the corpus-based study, such expressions are rather rare in professional economic texts.

Frequently, purpose is conveyed by means of the so called purpose infinitive (together with *in order to* or *so as to*) and lexical phrases:

{*to organise to, the aim ... to, the objective ... to, the project ... to, the proposal ... to, the purpose ... to, the reorganisation ... to, the strategy ... to, the tactic ... to, to be oriented ... to, to be planning ... to, to be prepared ... to, to be projected ... to*}[221]

> *He asked how society could* ***organise*** *its activities* ***in order to produce*** *as much surplus (above what is needed for reproduction) as possible.* [PRB 7]
>
> *Our* ***aim is simply to describe*** *man's economic nature and wants, to investigate the laws and the character of institutions which are adapted ...* [PRB 2]
>
> *The* ***objective is to identify*** *problems at an early stage to minimise any loss of shareholder value.* [PRB 1]
>
> *If its only* ***purpose is to sort*** *prospective workers then questions arise as to the appropriateness of investing in the expansion and/or qualitative upgrading of schooling…* [PRB 3]
>
> *The* ***proposal to classify*** *leases into finance and operating leases, and* ***to capitalise*** *those which are classified as finance leases, appears to be a feasible solution...* [PRB 1]
>
> *Population growth peaked in the 1960s, has fallen substantially since then and* ***is projected to fall*** *further in future decades.* [PRB 6]

221 Lexical means can also be used in the past to express future in the past:

> ***The objective was to increase*** *competition as smaller brewers and other companies and individuals bought these pubs and then stocked a range of beers.* [PRB 6]

For instance, the futural potential of the lexical expressions can be demonstrated on the basis of the co-text. Lexical means often co-occur together with the core futural expressions. The result of the organisation is the future act of achieving the allocation of resources in the following example:

> *Within it, an ongoing debate is raging over the question of how best* ***to organise*** *economic activities such that the allocation of resources* ***will achieve*** *that which society desires.* [PRB 7]
> *... however, the more anxious they* ***are likely to be*** *to get a job, and therefore the lower* ***will*** *be the wage they* ***are prepared to accept****.* [PRB 6]

The category of purpose, aim and plan also covers instances of intratextual reference as a means of organising an author's writing and expressing their aims and plans:

> *In short, our* ***aim is to trace*** *the route from political economy to economics and the corresponding, and to some extent subsequent, …* [PRB 2]
> *The main* ***purpose*** *of this chapter* ***is to extend*** *cash flow accounting by adjusting for the effect of transactions that have not been completed by the end of an accounting...* [PRB 1]

Thus all the instances of textual reference presented above would also belong to the category of aim, plan and purpose.

Instances of lexical means can also occur where complex grammar forms might be used such as the future perfect form in the following example: *The* ***aim is to progressively reduce*** *these emissions to 5.2% below their 1990 level by 2012.* [PRB 2] ~ It is our goal that these immissions **will have been reduced** progressively to 5.2% below their 1990 level by 2012. The infinitive can also be replaced by other non-finite verb forms such as the gerund: *A scientific enquiry with* ***the aim of identifying*** *new strains of antibiotics for future use…* [PRB 1] The infinitive can be replaced by a that-clause with another verb referring to the future: *This will presumably be clarified when a revised standard is issued. The* ***proposal*** *is that these* ***should*** *be based on the lessee's best estimate of the expected lease payments over the term of the lease.* [PRB 1]

7.5.2 Effort, desire, willingness

The category of effort, desire and willingness refers to events, actions and states that are objects of (human) will. In other words, such events are intended to happen or to be realised in the future as they arise from one's volition. The negation of such volitional expressions then results in lack of volition.

It has been shown in the theoretical part, that the core expressions of futurality convey various degrees of willingness (deontic modality). In addition, some of the expressions can vary with respect to the intention they deliver. *Will* + the simple infinitive can have a strong volitional shading, but *will* + progressive infinitive states facts devoid of volitional interpretation. But in general, effort, desire and willingness can be expressed by the present progressive, *be going to*, *be to*, *will* and *shall*. For instance, the intratextual function of the expressions also bears the author's effort and willingness to deal with particular topics in the particular part of the text:

> *To aid the exposition we **will** refer to Figure 3.1, which schematically indicates various kinds of individual work history information, …* [PRB 3]
> *From this one problem stem all the other economic problems we **shall be looking** at throughout this book. This central economic problem is the problem of scarcity.* [PRB 6]
> *In this chapter and the next, we **are going to** look at the special role that money plays in the economy.* [PRB 6]
> *This utility, it **is to be noted**, is in the participating, not in any utility from the consumption which the individual's contribution provides.* [PRB 2] ~ It should be noted, We should note

Core expressions of futurality such as be *on the point of*, *be about to* whose main purpose is to convey imminence reduce the volitional meaning. Similarly, the present simple futurate that expresses immutability lacks in any volitional meaning. The present simple form conveys volitional meaning namely as an expression of the subordinate future:

> *Moderate Keynesians argue that economies will probably eventually pull out of recession even if governments **do not boost** demand. There will be a natural upturn in the business cycle.* [PRB 6] ~ governments do not want, they are not willing to
> *If, however, you **paint** the room yourself, it will not.* [PRB 6] ~ you want to paint, you are willing to paint

or in (defining) textual reference[222]:

> *We **call** points like A, which require sacrificing one commodity in exchange for more of the other commodity, an efficient allocation*. [PRB 7] ~ We will call, We shall call, It is our will/aim to call, We want to call
> *In section 18.5 we shall see just how this process works. First we **define** what is meant by money and examine its functions. Then in sections 18.2 and 18.3 we **look***

222 But some authors claim that such use of the simple present tense convey immediate futurality: "When referring to work that follows in the same paper, then use the present simple as appropriate to immediate and certain future, while the classical form with *will* is used for future work after this article of for predicted events; it is used for events that are relatively certain, otherwise one of the conditional forms might be needed: We explain our method in Sect. 2" (Guide to the English editing at Astronomy and Astrophysics). But it has been shown above that textual reference is realised across more distant parts of the book. We therefore assume that the present form suggests immutability as the outline of a book is given and unchangeable.

at the operation of the financial sector of the economy… [PRB 6] ~ We will define/look, We shall define/look, It is our will to define/look, We want to define

Besides the core expressions, a number of lexical means can be identified in the economic contexts that convey effort, desire and willingness:

{to act to, to afford to, to allow to, to agree to, to argue to, to attempt to, to cause to, to choose to, to compel to, to contribute to, to decide to, to deserve to, to enable to, to encourage to, to expect to, to fail to, to have an incentive to, to hesitate to, to hope to, to determine to, to intend to, to invite to, to lobby to, to involve to, to make an effort to, to make it possible to, to make somebody do something, to motivate to, to offer to, to permit to, to persuade to, to prevent from, to prompt to, to require to, to seek to, to serve to, to struggle to, to support to, to tempt to, to tend to, to try to, to want to, to wish to, to work to, the account to, the attempt to, the choice to, the commitment to, the concern to, the desire to, the force to, the gain to, the imperative to, the incentive to, the intent to, the intention to, the interest to, the need to, the permit to, the power to, the pressure to, the requirements to, the right to, the struggle to, the support to, the tendency to, the willingness to, to be desirable to, to be desired to, to be encouraged to, to be invited to, to be keen to, to be required to, to be treated to, to be willing to}

*These 'bogus' credits then **permit** companies **to carry on** emitting in the EU. It is hoped by 2012 to extend the scheme to airline and shipping emissions, although road transport will…* [PRB 6]
*Each firm is given a **permit to produce** a given level of pollution.* [PRB 6]
*… the government doesn't really expect to succeed or even seriously to try, but is merely attempting to **persuade** unions **to curb** their wage demands.* [PRB 6]
*Third, parents who **intend to encourage** their child to proceed to further and higher education will choose a school of high quality for their child.* [PRB 3]
*… as population and waste grow, so environmental degradation is likely to grow at a faster rate. Firms thus have **an incentive** both **to use** such technology and also **to research** into cleaner and more resource-efficient techniques.* [PRB 6]

After some verbs and adjectives that clause can be used to convey futurality. Thus, besides the infinitive form, lexical expressions can be followed by modal verbs or the subjunctive implying future events, actions and states. Lexical means conveying effort, desire and willingness co-occur with the core futural expressions and other modal verbs:

*Audit tests should vary so that employees cannot anticipate what **will** be audited. It **is not desirable** that audit staff **be transferred** to senior positions in a client company. This happens but it does mean that they **will** continue to have close relation…* [PRB 1]
*If, for example, you restrict the amount of money and yet people still **want to borrow**, money **will** simply circulate faster (the velocity of circulation (V) **will** rise), and hence aggregate demand **may** not decline.* [PRB 6]

Lexical expressions can also be postponed after core futural expressions. Then the matrix as well as the complement time refer to the future:[223]

> *For reasons of profitability, the banks **will want to 'borrow short'** (at low rates of interest, as are generally paid on current accounts) and **'lend long'** (at higher rates of interest, …* [PRB 6][224]

7.5.3 Change and stability

Futurality can be a result of changes or a result of stability. Analogously to other communicative functions, such a resultant meaning can be conveyed in many ways. Change and stability can be expressed by various lexical means, for instance phasal verbs, but also other lexical phrases:

{to begin to, to carry on, to cease to, to change to, to come to, to come into, to continue to, to go on to, to lead to, to keep, to proceed to, to result in, to start to, to stop to, to turn out to, the change to, the effect to, the emergence to, the implication to, the impulse to, the incentive to, the waiting to, the shift to}

> *... we are convinced that the trend will be that more Danish companies **begin to employ** completely integrated reporting.* [PRB 1]
> *But carbon does not **cease to exist**, not to be of analytical relevance, simply because it can become, or become contained within, a number of different products.* [PRB 2]
> *He identifies three basic drives or instincts that govern human behaviour: the instinct of workmanship or the **impulse to work** in order to 'turn things to human use'.* [PRB 2]

The matrix time of the above lexical verbs is present, but the complement time of the infinitive forms refers to the future. In case of some phasal verbs, the infinitive form refers to the future (non-past), the gerund refers to the past (non-future):

> *We **continue to work** towards internalising the cost of carbon and demonstrating how environmental impacts of the business can be brought into our reporting …* [PRB 1]
> *The price effect would occur even if there was only an informal decision by consumers in the developed world to **stop buying** a good believed to have been produced by child labour.* [PRB 3] ~ the act of buying was and is actual
> *... to **continue to invest** in more education or training beyond the current level of education or to **stop investing** in formal schooling and enter the labour market.* [PRB 3]

223 The time of performance of the matrix action is postponed towards the future. The same holds for pre-indications.

224 In such instances, the volitional interpretation of *will* is reduced as one can hardly 'want to want' or 'want to intend'. *Will* only serves as a 'postponer' of the lexical volition. Such examples also prove that *will* as an auxiliary is able to express pure future.

Analogously to other communicative functions, the matrix time of lexical verbs can be postponed and modalised by core futural expressions and modal verbs:

At this stage, production and financial economies ***will begin to be*** *offset by the managerial problems of running a giant organisation.* [PRB 6]
Do you think that after a couple of years people ***might begin to base*** *their expectations differently?* [PRB 6]

In such cases, the complement time of the non-finite verb form is subject to the matrix time of the lexical verb. The matrix time also represents the present pre-indication for the complement time. If the matrix time is present, the pre-indication is also present. If the matrix time is postponed to the future, the pre-indication is also postponed. As a consequence of the postponement, the complement time also has to refer to the future. In case of gerund, the duration of the action is prolonged towards the future. In case of the infinitive, the action is triggered in the future:

If people believe that a deflationary policy will cause a recession, firms ***will stop investing*** *and will cut their workforce.* [PRB 6]
If this happens, the LRAC curve ***will begin to slope*** *upwards again.* [PRB 6]

Analogously to other communicative functions, the change and stability can be expressed by means of the core expressions of futurality and lexical verbs. For instance, *We continue to work* can be paraphrased as *We will still work* or *We are still going to work.* The similarity of the forms (with or without the phasal verb) proves that the phasal verb does not convey a full lexical meaning. Hence, the sentence *We will continue to work* is also almost synonymous.

7.5.4 Means, ways, methods and results

Various instruments can be used to realise future events, states and actions in the future. Thus, instances of this instrumental expression of futurality can be identified in professional economic texts such as research means, ways and methods. Such instruments are always used for a particular purpose, thus the infinitive forms can be interpreted as purpose infinitives.

Besides all the core expressions of futurality, there are lexical means occurring such as:

{to adjust to, to develop to, to design to, to intervene to, to lead to, to lobby to, to monitor to, to reconstruct to, to regulate to, to stimulate to, to take actions to, the action to, the alternative to, the barriers to, the intervention to, the means to, the measure to, the mechanisms to, the mobility to, the option to, the policy to, the regulation to, the resistance to, the solution to, the tactic to, the technology to, the way to, to be better to, to be careful to, to be designed to, to be difficult to, to be easy to, to be eligible, to be extended to, to be free to, to be hard to, to be important to, to be misleading to, to be normalised to, to be reasonable to, to be used to, to be stimulated to, to be worth, to be useful to/for}.

Particular methods can be expressed by means of lexical verbs. Although many lexical means were identified in economic texts, only a few will be exemplified:

> *Accept that it is not possible to effectively* ***regulate*** *companies* ***to achieve*** *consistent treatment of similar economic transactions unless there is a common standard enforced.* [PRB 1]
> *This will tend to* ***stimulate*** *firms* ***to increase*** *output, thus reducing slack in the economy.* [PRB 6]

Ways of reaching particular goals can also be specified by nouns:

> *This means that a deflationary* ***policy to cure*** *inflation will not in the long run cause a fall in output or a rise in unemployment.* [PRB 6]
> *Is the* ***solution to tax*** *the rich very heavily, so that the money can be redistributed to the poor?* [PRB 6]

Many adjectives with the infinitive complement can also convey qualities of various ways and methods. Thus, they are also included in the category:

> *For example, a policy* ***designed to accelerate*** *the rate of economic growth may result in a higher rate of inflation and a balance of payments deficit.* [PRB 6]
> *It would therefore be* ***misleading to calculate*** *the EPS figure by dividing the earnings generated during the year by the number of shares in issue at the end of the year.* [PRB 1]

The futural meaning of the complement time becomes apparent in the context of other (core) expressions of futurality: *In our example, speculators* ***may*** *anticipate that the central bank* ***will*** *raise interest rates or take some other* ***measure to reduce*** *inflation. They thus believe that the exchange rate* ***will*** *appreciate again.* [PRB 6]

Particular methods can be conveyed by all the core expressions of futurality as the meaning can be expressed easily by a number of lexical verbs:

> *If people believe that a deflationary policy will cause a recession, firms will stop investing and will cut their workforce. If they believe that it* ***will cure*** *inflation and*

restore firms' competitiveness abroad, firms ***may increase*** *investment.* [PRB 6] ~ the cure to reduce inflation, the method to cure inflation
It is incorrect to state that putting up interest rates ***will reduce*** *inflation.* [PRD 6] ~ the method to reduce inflation by putting up interest rates
It may increase the happiness of politicians to tell us that they ***are going to maximise*** *our wellbeing, but it is a task that is beyond their capacity.* [PRB 4] ~ the maximisation of our wellbeing to increase the happiness

In addition, immediate futurality is also conveyed by performative verbs when authors perform certain methods for or together with the reader:

We also ***add*** *a line showing the target rate of inflation. Before we look at the properties of the model, let us examine each of the three lines in turn.* [PRB 6]
If we ***add*** *+25 to each side of the equation, the equation becomes:* $X^2 - 25 + 25 = +25$*, which can be reduced to:* $X^2 = 25$*.* [PRB 7]
We also ***subtract*** *the imported component (e.g., raw materials) from exports. GDP (at market prices)* $= C + G + I + X - M$ [PRB 6]
If we now ***divide*** *the top and bottom of equation (4) by* ΔD*, we* ***get*** $m = \Delta D/\Delta D + \Delta C/\Delta D\ 1 + c = \Delta R/\Delta D + \Delta C/\Delta D\ r + c$ *(7).* [PRB 6]

Such performatives can also be presented to the reader in a more straightforward way by means of the imperative referring to immediate future: *... if we increase the consumption of bread by 1 slice (dX = 1), the consumption of eggs (Y) will have to change by adding 1/2 an egg (dY = 1/2).* ***Divide*** *both sides by dX and we* ***get****: ..., which is exactly the slope of the line (the function).* [PRB 7]

7.5.5 Seeming, certainty, probability and prediction

One of the most frequent functions of futurality constructions in professional economic texts is the expression of probability conveying various degrees of certainty about future. Economic texts contain a number of authors' predictions or hypotheses. These instances are often marked explicitly as formulations of probability: *In determining whether '****it is probable*** *that future economic benefits* ***will*** *flow to the entity' there could still be uncertainties as to both costs and revenues.* [PRB 1]

It has been shown above that these expressions form clusters and regularly co-occur to form higher text units. Besides *will*, the clusters can comprise other modal verbs expressing a degree of epistemic modality (*may* or *would*), but also the *be going to* construction. In the following instance, the author presupposes some present evidence that enables them to use the phrase: *Accountants* ***will*** *become increasingly involved with its*

development and this chapter provides a brief oversight of a development that ***is going to*** *make a major impact internationally on the availability of financial data for comparative analysis.* [PRB 1]

Lexical means[225] include also phrases that can serve as hypothetical prefixes or that can be complemented by non-finite verb forms:

{*to be apt to, to be likely to, to seem likely that, to be expected to, to be supposed to, to be apparent, to be assumed to, to be believed to, to be certain, to be possible, to seem to, to suppose to, to appear to, to estimate to, to be necessary to, the tendency to, the possibility to}*

> *... firms take into account this aspect of education when hiring workers, anticipating that graduates, for example, may be both more productive and* ***less likely to*** *absent. Following this line of thought, one might expect workers to anticipate the way firms hire when making their education decisions.* [PRB 3]
> *... α is a term representing the costs of migration. In other words, people will migrate when, after taking the cost of migrating into account, they can* ***expect to earn*** *more in the towns than in the countryside.* [PRB 6]
> *In addition, she makes clear that the potential effects of unions on schools* ***are expected to*** *be magnified when the market for schooling is imperfectly competitive. This is because rents will be available for rent-seeking unions …* [PRB 3]
> *Under IAS 38 more companies may capitalise development expenditure, although many will avoid capitalisation by saying they* ***cannot be certain to*** *make future profits from the sale of the product.* [PRB 1]

As we have said, these lexical phrases are used as prefixes introducing other futural expressions, namely *will*:

> *It* ***is likely that*** *2010* ***will*** *see further changes in the accounting standards in response to the financial crisis, not only for measurement of financial instruments that ...* [PRB 1]
> *... while it is possible to exaggerate its importance it* ***does seem likely*** *that individuals* ***will*** *tend to overperceive small risks of seriously adverse outcomes and that, in turn, this* ***will*** *tend to reduce the degree of ...* [PRB 5]
> *Changes in the rate of inflation can affect the required yield. If, for example, it* ***is expected*** *that inflation* ***will*** *fall, this might mean that past percentage yields will be higher than the percentage yield that is likely to be available in the future...* [PRB 1]
> *Up to now we* ***have assumed*** *that a firm* ***will*** *sell its output at a single price. Sometimes, however, firms may practise price discrimination.* [PRB 6]
> *... in the near future, you may well decide to buy some now and then sell them later after the price has risen. But you* ***cannot be certain*** *that they* ***will*** *go up in price:*

225 Smilarly to grammatical futural constructions, lexical constructions can express future in the past:

> *The argument was that if the company continued with the replacement of fixed assets, and if the capital allowances* ***were reasonably certain to*** *exceed the depreciation in the foreseeable future, it was unrealistic to make charges against the profit and create provisions that would not crystall…* [PRB 1]

In this instance, the author expressed a hypothetical premise.

they may fall instead. If you buy the shares, therefore, you will be taking a gamble. Now gambles can be of two types. [PRB 6]

One of the advantages of the use of lexical items is the anticipatory *it* that affects the communicative dynamism of the clause. In addition, it is possible to modify the degree of certainty by means of quantifiers.

... to establish the fair value of an option at grant date the market price could be used (if the option is traded on a market), but it ***is much more likely*** *that an option pricing model* ***will*** *need to be used.* [PRB 1]
Although over the years people's expectations are assumed to be correct on average, it ***is more than likely*** *that in any one year they* ***will*** *be wrong.* [PRB 6]

In addition, the lexical phrases can also be used together with modals of epistemicity: *But what are the objectives of managers? Will they want to maximise profits, or will they have some other aim? Managers* ***may be assumed to*** *want to maximise their own utility. This may well involve pursuits that conflict with profit maximisation. They may, for example,...* [PRB 6] In some instances, the degree of certainty is modified by multiple means: *However if the issue is serious enough for one or more independent director to resign it* ***is likely*** *that the market* ***will certainly*** *take note.* [PRB 1] The variety of means also enables authors to express their hypotheses in rather complicated syntactic structures:

Radley and Taylor (2002) focus on the impact of the quality of rival schools' output (i.e., exam performance) on a school's own exam performance. It ***is expected*** *that, the better the exam performance of rival schools, the* ***more likely*** *it is that a school* ***will*** *attempt to improve its own performance to encourage…* [PRB 3]
It ***is often assumed*** *that as a firm* ***expands****, it* ***will*** *initially experience economies of scale and thus face a downward sloping LRAC curve.* [PRB 6]

Besides *will*, more hypothetical futural situations can be marked by other modal expressions such as *can* or *would*:

It ***is hardly likely*** *that 22 per cent of the population* ***would*** *achieve a quantum leap in their happiness over a period of only four years.* [PRB 4]
... extrapolation from average costs will produce a biased estimate. The length of the period concerned may also be relevant. In the short-run it ***is less likely*** *that extra staff* ***can*** *be employed, for example, than in the long-run.* [PRB 5]

7.5.6 Potentiality, disposition and capability

Unlike the previous category, the meaning of potentiality and capability does not necessarily convey epistemicity (the author's own judgements). Certain actions and states can be realised in the future due to their properties, qualities and nature. The author can

then keep their judgements and hypothesising aside. Unlike certainty, we will mark as potential what is capable of being or becoming. It is an inherent property that is pre-evident and indicated at the time of utterance due to its predestination and inherence. The potentiality can be latent or evident. Thus, a scale of potentiality can be determined. Analogously to certainty, authors of economic texts hypothesise about potentiality of economic states and actions, expressing the various degrees of possibility:

> *By balanced budget, Oates calculates the impact of raising the effective property tax rate from 2 per cent to 3 per cent on the median house value. He also determines how much additional revenue this* ***will*** *yield for education and what impact the additional revenue* ***will*** *have on educational spending per student. Then the impact of this increase in educational spending on property value, plus the impact of the tax increase, give the balanced budget increase.* [PRB 3]
> *The distribution of the good* ***will*** *therefore be related to the ability of the consumer to pay for it, i.e., by his wealth. Distribution* ***will*** *then be determined, not just by demand per se, but by the existing structure of wealth holdings.* [PRB 6]
> *Thus marginal utility will be zero. Your desire for tea may be fully satisfied at seven cups per day. An eighth cup* ***will*** *yield no extra utility. It may even give you displeasure (i.e., negative marginal utility). [PRB 6]*

While certainty can be expressed for both animate and inanimate subjects, potentiality is predominantly limited to inanimate subjects. The *be going to* construction with inanimate subjects expresses some present evidence indicated at the time of utterance and increasing an author's certainty which makes the utterance about the future more constative than hypothetical: *This is a perverse effect given the intentions of those who initiate such sanctions. Of course, this perverse effect* ***is not always going to*** *arise, but, as stated above, the possibility that it does is greater for a poorer household.* [PRB 3] The term possibility in this instance is a synonym for probability. The author simply expresses higher probability of the effect for poorer households. The occurrence of the effect is hypothesised in terms of probability rather than potentiality.

Besides purely grammatical means, there are lexical constructions[226] and phrases that convey the potential meaning:

{*to be able to, to be possible to, to be set to, to be destined to, to be necessary to, to be determined, to be doomed to, the potential to/for, the possibility to, the ability to, the capacity to, the opportunity to, the right to, to be capable of*}

> *Applying the matching principle, it* ***is necessary to*** *estimate how much of the initial outlay should be assumed to have been revenue expenditure, i.e., used in achieving the revenue of the accounting period.* [PRB 1]

226 Lexical means of potentiality can also express future in the past: *There is little doubt that Marshall* ***was determined to*** *establish analytical principles for the professionalisation and application of economic theory, especially in the context of market society.* [PRB 2]

> *... where there is a single technological frontier on which efficient economies can perform. Those without adequate education* ***are doomed to*** *produce inefficiently...* [PRB 3]

Lexical means can also serve as a potentiality prefix introducing a grammatical construction of potentiality: *It* ***is possible*** *that a multi-product enterprise* ***will*** *expand output non-proportionally, in which case ray economies of scale are not applicable.* [PRB 3][227]

The potentiality can also be expressed by the subjunctive:

> *If information is to represent faithfully the transactions and other events that it purports to represent, it* ***is necessary*** *that they* ***be*** *accounted for and presented in accordance with their substance and economic reality and not merely their legal form.* [PRB 1]
> *But it is also apparent for Marshall that, in order to establish economics as a discipline, it* ***is necessary*** *that it* ***be*** *underpinned by a set of principles however much these might need to be qualified by historical circumstances.* [PRB 2]

Some potentiality can be determined by external factors based on adjustment[228]: *The Bank is charged to deliver price stability, but operationally it has a symmetrical target around a 2 per cent inflation rate. Interest rates* ***are set to*** *meet this target 24 months hence. If current inflation exceeds or undershoots this target by more than one percentage point then ...* [PRB 6]

Immediate potentiality can be expressed by *be about to*, such as a capacity of the Internet in the following instance: *The Internet* ***is about to*** *change this by focusing on how to report rather than what to report. It has the capacity to give investors the means to readily analyse the financial.* [PRB 1] The interpersonal and the experiential functions are thus combined and conveyed together markedly in this case.

No occurrences of *shall* expressing potentiality were found. It is other modal verbs such as *can* that are used besides *will* and lexical means as potentiality expressions: *Machin and Manning (1997) and Acemoglu (1998, 2002a, 2002b) argue that increased supply* ***can*** *actually stimulate future demand.* [PRB 3] *Can* occurs in states and events with a clearly futural meaning (together with *will*). Still, its use is more non-past or

227 In case a degree of certainty is prefixed, *will* and the lexical verb refer to potentiality rather than possibility. Otherwise, possibility would be expressed twice.
228 Potentiality based on adjustment can also express future in the past: *The current deficit for 2009/10 was projected by the Treasury to be some 4.5 per cent of GDP. Public-sector debt* ***was also set to*** *breach the 40 per cent of GDP ceiling, reaching 57.4 per cent by 2013/14.* [PRB 6]

omnitemporal rather than purely future as it refers to a stable capacity or ability of animate as well as inanimate objects:

> *We have said that the amount people **can** afford to buy will depend on (a) their budget and (b) the prices of the two goods.* [PRB 6]
> *As income increases, and a decreasing fraction of it goes on consumption, so an increasing fraction of it will be saved. The rich **can** afford to save a larger proportion of their income than the poor.* [PRB 6]

Can is also used to express the potentiality of internal or external sources of a text to deliver necessary evidence and data to support an author's ideas (see above).

May is another modal verb that can express potentiality that arises inherently:

> *Then there is the problem of the environment. If a rise in labour and capital leads to a more intensive use of land and natural resources, the resulting growth in output **may** be environmentally unsustainable.* [PRB 6]
> *Scientists **may** be the ones to tell us the physical consequences of our actions, such as the degree of global warming that might result from CO_2 emissions.* [PRB 6]

This is only a brief overview of microfunctions and enumeration of their relevant grammatical and lexical means. A more profound analysis of the modal-futural meanings of the verbs exceeds the scope of this dissertation.

The potentiality of an action, event or state to be realised is often related to another variable. Such relations are conveyed by means of comparative clauses. Subordinate futurality can be delimited in such potential expressions (see Chapter 7.4.2): *The stickier wages and prices **are**, the longer it **will** take for internal balance to be restored*. [PRB 6]

8 FUTURALITY IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSE TEXTBOOKS

Expressions of futurality are presented in a number of ESP textbooks and grammar books. We will now investigate to what extent the particular textbooks cover futurality as a linguistic phenomenon and which expressions they present. All the analysed textbooks focus on teaching grammar of English for business and economic purposes and thus might be used to explain futurality in the specific context. The only exception is Paterson's Oxford Grammar for EAP (English for Academic Purposes) (2013) which provides a comprehensive study of general academic English grammar for students at university level regardless of academic disciplines.

8.1 SELECTION OF EXPRESSIONS OF FUTURALITY IN ESP TEXTBOOKS

8.1.1 Grammar for Business

McCarthy's Grammar for Business (2009) devotes much attention to futurality explicitly. Out of forty lessons, four are concerned explicitly with expressions of futurality. Apparently, there are more lessons covering futurality such as modal verbs (four lessons) and conditionals (two lessons).

McCarthy et al. (ibid) present the following futural constructions: *be going to* construction, present progressive, future *will* and *shall*, the present simple tense, the future progressive and future perfect. The grammar book also provides explanation of the *be about to* and *be to* structures.

Besides these expressions that correspond to the core means of expressing future time (except for *be on the point/verge of*), McCarthy et al. (ibid) enumerate a number of lexical futural constructions, namely *seem, be (un)likely to, be due to, be supposed to, be expected to* and *be set to*. One lesson is devoted to lexical means of futurality. As a motivation, McCarthy et al. (ibid) use a business forecast: *Manufacturing employment* ***is expected to*** *decline, and the cat industry* ***is set*** *to see the biggest decrease. Inflation is likely to rise because of increases in the world oil price.* (McCarthy, 2009, p. 60)

Particular attention is paid to intensification of probability and remoteness of futurality. Lexical means can be used to express a great variety of probability intensities: *to be very/quite/most likely* and *to be rather/very/highly/extremely unlikely*. Similarly, when expressing futurality in business, degrees of futural remoteness can be diversified by means of adverbials: disjuncts such as *going forward, looking ahead,* and adjuncts like in *the near/immediate/foreseeable future*, *in the short/medium/long/longer term*. Where necessary, McCarthy et al. (ibid) comment on the different frequency of usage (e.g., *going forward* is used in everyday business conversations but not common conversations, thus it is business-specific).

The authors also demonstrate that near future is not expressed only by *be going to* construction, giving this instance: *Intense competition will continue in the electronics market in the foreseeable future.* (p. 63), defining foreseeable future as *"the future you can imagine or plan for"*.

Besides all the formal uses of the core futural expressions, expressions of futurality are analysed in terms of their textual meaning. McCarthy et al. (ibid) present both grammatical and lexical constructions as discourse markers which are frequently used to organise economic text and discourse. The *be going to* construction is used "in presentations, workshops and training sessions to organise what they [presenters] say and to manage the activities." (McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 51) Besides the core futural constructions, McCarthy et al. (ibid) emphasise the use of lexical means such as *would like to*, *want* and *let's*. At the same time, Mc Carthy et al. present *will* in the very same functions: "People often use *will* to organise what they say in presentations, workshops and training sessions." (McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 51) A particular lesson is devoted to the future progressive form as a means of conveying politeness.

8.1.2 Essential Business Grammar and Practice and Business Grammar and Practice

M. Duckworth (2003, 2006) pays much attention to the use of futural expressions in business and economic discourse. Even on the elementary and pre-intermediate level (2006) four lessons out of 72 are devoted to futurality explicitly. Besides these, futurality is elaborated in another nine lessons on various functions: permission, requests and offers, suggestions, advice, uncertainty, obligation, imperative and conditional. Elementary and pre-intermediate students are exposed to four core futural expressions: *will*, present

progressive tense, *be going to* construction and present simple tense. *Shall* is presented only as an exponent of offer together with the first person singular and plural subjects.

On the intermediate and above level, the proportion of the phenomenon of futurality is also high and similar to Duckworth's lower-level grammar book (2006). Besides the four core expressions, Duckworth extends the more advanced grammar book (2003) for other future tenses, namely the future progressive and the future perfect tense. The author also presents the phenomenon of the past future represented by the past progressive form and the past *be going to* construction. A particular lesson deals with futurality as possibility and probability. Duckworth (ibid) presents possibility and probability as a continuum that can be modified by means of adverbials (*definitely, probably, perhaps, maybe*). Lexical means can also be used to differentiate the various degrees of certainty such as *be (un)likely to*, *be certain to* or *be expected to*.

Similarly, a number of probability prefixes together with *will* can create a hierarchical continuum to modalise futural reality. The author creates the following scale: (high probability) *I'm quite sure that > I'm confident that > I expect that > The chances are that > I should think that > I shouldn't think that > I doubt if > I doubt very much whether* (low probability). Besides *will, may, might* and *could* are acceptable as means of expressing possible and probable future.

8.1.3 English in Economics

Kaftan et al. (2006) devote three lessons of nine to futurality explicitly. Another two lessons deal with modal verbs, sequence of tenses and wish clauses. The authors first present the use of the future perfect tense simple as well as progressive. Among other core futural constructions are the future simple and progressive tenses, the present progressive tense and the *be going to* construction. No attention is paid to the use of *shall* and the futurate present simple tense.

8.1.4 New English in Economics 1, 2

No explicit explication of the phenomenon of futurality is given in the textbook. The author is concerned mainly with modality with no futural meaning.

8.1.5 Oxford Grammar for EAP

Paterson (2013) deals with tenses in one comprehensive lesson. In the section Future (p. 10) all the core futural constructions are presented: the future simple tense (*will*), *be going to,* the present simple tense, the future progressive, the future perfect simple and progressive tenses, *be (due) to, be on the point of* and *be about to* constructions. Besides the core expressions, Paterson (ibid) is also concerned with lexical expressions, namely *be (un)likely to* and *be certain to*. *Shall* is not considered at all. *Be going to* can be replaced by verbs such as *intend to* or *plan to* in their present simple or progressive forms: *A group of private universities in Germany intends to/is intending to introduce...* (Paterson, 2013, p. 10) In addition to this, Paterson presents the notion of past future and provides a number of past future expressions such as *was to*, *was about to*, *would* and *was going to*.

Besides the comprehensive lesson devoted to a tense review, the phenomenon of futurality is analysed in other related lessons (Modal verbs, Arguing and persuading, Talking about cause and effect, Hedging and Conditionals).

8.1.6 Economics – English for Academic Purposes

Yates (1998) declares that the aim of his textbook is to:

- introduce the contents of Economics,
- provide examples of authentic texts, and
- help to practice the skills in order to study the subject through English.

The textbooks covers grammar in *Check your grammar* sections. Of all tenses, the present perfect tense is presented explicitly as a grammatical structure. The past and present simple tenses are included in the topic of passivisation. The *Check your grammar* sections do not provide any explicit explanation. Only a few exemplars (from two to three sentences) illuminate the use of the structures. The *will* future occurs in only one exemplar (in a conditional clause): *If more workers are employed, total input **will** increase.* (p. 15)

No other futural constructions are exemplified even though a large number of them is used in the authentic academic texts introducing each chapter.

8.1.7 English Grammar for Economics and Business

Ellman's grammar book is composed as a glossary of:

- common mistakes that students of economics in L2 (English as a second language) make,
- expressions that are commonly mistaken, and
- notes on style.

Under the entry *tense,* Ellman (2014) emphasises what we call *temporal cohesion.* The use of past tense is presented explicitly in summaries and conclusions (namely in dissertations). No explicit information on futural constructions is provided. The author does not exemplify futurality in any way.

Under the entry *if-clauses*, Ellman (ibid) highlights the use of present tense in conditional clauses (2014, p. 49): "It is not surprising that non-native users of English often use the future tense in if-clauses that refer to the future. This is logical, but the English language is not always logical, and this use of the future is incorrect. Usually the present tense is used with if when indicating a future event: The firm's future will be assured if the grant application is [not will be] assured."

8.1.8 Business Grammar Builder

Emmerson (2010) provides a comprehensive outline of futural constructions in two lessons (pp. 34-41). One chapter is devoted only to the distinction between *will*, *be going to* and present progressive. The author pays particular attention to the differences between *be going to* and *will*, and *be going to* and the present progressive tense.

Emmerson (ibid) deals with the remoteness of the *be going to* future. Unlike other authors, he emphasises that remoteness is irrelevant for the use of this structure. Only *be about to* is explained as a means of conveying immediate futurality. Expectations are expressed by means of *be due to*.

The other chapter extends the list of futural constructions with subordinate future (present futurate) in time clauses, the future perfect and future progressive tenses. Past future is introduced in case of *be going to* (*was/were going to*). Alternative expressions of futurality include lexical means (namely verbs such as *expect, hope, intend, would like, plan* and *want*). The author is also concerned with levels of formality (*will* versus *shall*) and the discourse criteria (spoken and written medium in terms of *will* and *be going to*).

Finally, the degree of probability is presented by means of a scale and combines futural and modal constructions together (*may, can, might, should, must, could, ought to*) , as well as lexical (modal) expressions (*be certain to, be un/likely to*).

8.2 FUNCTIONS OF EXPRESSIONS OF FUTURALITY IN ESP TEXTBOOKS

8.2.1 Will/Shall + infinitive, future progressive and future perfect simple and progressive

Paterson (2013, p. 10) refers to *will* as a synonym of *be going to*. The two futural expressions differ mainly in frequency, *will* being more frequent than *going to* in written academic English.

Emmerson (2010, p. 34) asserts that both the forms can be used in some occasions, but they differ. Speakers use *will* to state a fact but *be going to* to express their intention: *In my presentation, I'll talk/I'm going to talk about three main areas.*

McCarthy et al. (2009) do not deal with the frequency criterion explicitly. They even ignore the spoken-written discourse dichotomy. More emphasis is placed on the use of *will* within spoken discourse. For instance, they present the function of decision: [Telephone rings] *I'll answer it…* Similarly, *will* differs from *be going to* as it expresses instant decisions: *Great idea! I'll do it tomorrow.* (Emmerson, 2010, p. 34)

Unlike other core futural expressions, *will* is the only futural construction used with verbs expressing uncertainty about the future (can be introduced by *doubt, expect, hope, think*):

> *Some critics expect that the new scheme will fail quite quickly through lack of public support.* (Paterson, 2013, p. 10)
> *Do you think we'll reach our targets?* (McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 52)
> *I think we'll probably open an office in Taipei next year.* (Emmerson, 2010, p. 34)

Progressive form is required if something will already be in progress at a specific time in the future.

> *By this time next year, it is possible that Bailey and Sharp will be exporting more of their tractors to China than to EU countries.* (Paterson, 2013, p. 10)
> *I'm afraid I can't see you on the 22nd because I will be attending a training course in England.* (Duckworth, 2003, p. 59)

If something is expected to happen to be achieved before a specific time in the future, the future perfect form is used:

> *... American merchant banks will have gone into receivership by this time next year.* (Paterson, 2013, p. 10)
> *We won't have paid the loan by the end of May.* (Duckworth, 2003, p. 59)

In the academic context, *will* is used with analysis verbs (*analyse, consider, describe, define, examine, explain, evaluate* or *introduce*) to describe the purpose of the whole or parts of an academic work: *In the third part of the essay, I will consider how the National Health Service could change over the next ten years.* (Paterson, 2013, p. 93)

According to Paterson (2013, p. 93) verbs such as *suggest, argue,* and *discuss* are used in the future progressive form: *In the final part of this report, I will be arguing that new legislation is required to control copyright abuse.*

Will is also used as a means of sequencing language. The sequencing function is usually conveyed by other grammatical means, namely phase verbs (*start, begin, move on to, follow, finish* and *conclude*) and adverbials (*firstly, first of all, in the second part, next, then, finally, lastly* and *in conclusion*): *This report will start by giving... It will then move on to... We will follow this with... Finally, we will make ...* (Paterson, 2013, p. 93). This use of *will* is also acceptable is spoken presentations: *I will start my presentation by defining the term globalisation.* (Paterson, 2013, p. 93)

Paterson (2013, p. 104) as well as Emmerson (2010, p. 38) declare that *shall* is quite rare in academic English and sounds very formal. Still, it is used instead of *will* as an arrangement or plan to deal with a particular topic in an academic work. This use is acceptable only with the first person singular and plural subjects (*I* and *we*). In the academic context, *shall* can also be used in spoken discourse to express offers, suggestions and advice:

> *Shall I take some notes for you if you can't attend the lecture?* (Paterson, 2013, p. 105)
> *Shall we prepare some kind of questionnaire?* (Paterson, 2013, p. 105)

Unlike Paterson, Emmerson emphasises the use of *shall* in legal documents (contracts).

McCarthy et al. (2009) also differentiates *will* and *shall* on the basis of frequency, *I/we shall* being rather rare. No explanation of the formality aspects is provided. The spoken usage of *shall* is emphasised again to express suggestions and trigger discussions: *Shall I look at your report after lunch?* (McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 52)

Will is also a piece of focusing language. It combines with focusing verbs (*focus on, refer to, cover, deal with, touch on*) and with focusing adverbials (*only, exclusively, for the*

purposes of, beyond/outside the scope of, with reference to): *For the purposes of this essay, I will take the example ... beyond the scope of this essay, which will focus exclusively on the technology and design.* (Paterson, 2013, p. 93)

Hypothetical *will* is frequently used in the conditional clauses together with the present simple tense (subordinate future). Such clauses combine causes and effects:

> *If temperature rises, forest fires will break out again.* (Paterson, 2013, p. 104)
> *If managers are allowed to control their budgets, their motivation levels will inevitably rise.* (Paterson, 2013, p. 111)

Such conditional clauses "are often used for asking about or making predictions" (Paterson, 2013, p.153). Predictions can result in warnings and advice: *If you submit your essay after the deadline, it will not be marked.* (Paterson, 2013, p.153)

Conditional clauses may also be used for offers and guarantees: *There is no fine print. If you are not completely satisfied with any item or service you buy from us, we will refund your money in full for up to one year after purchase.* (Paterson, 2013, p.153)

The future progressive and future perfect forms are explicated by McCarthy et al. (ibid) mainly with respect to the co-occurring time adverbials. The future progressive expresses an action in progress at a specific time or within an interval (e.g., *all night, at 6 pm, for the whole month,* and *this time next week*). The future perfect predicts an action that will happen before a specific point in the future (e.g., *by 5 pm, by next week*).

Emmerson (2010, p. 38) attempts to analyse the use of future perfect on the deictic basis: "We use the future perfect to look back from one point in the future to an earlier event or period of time": *By the end of the year, we will have sold around 20,000 units.* At the same time, he admits that the use of future simple tense is acceptable in such instances: *By the end of the year, we will send about 20,000 units.*

McCarthy et al. (ibid) considers the criterion of politeness. The future progressive tense is used to convey tentativeness. It can thus replace other futural constructions which are less polite:

less polite	**more polite**
When will you come?	*When will you be coming?*
How are you going to the airport?	*How will you be going to the airport?*
What are you going to do here?	*What will you be doing here?*

(McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 59)

Duckworth (2003, 2006) also presents futural constructions predominantly within spoken discourse. The main functions of *will* are spontaneous decisions, offers, promises and requests:

> Decision: *I haven't seen the minutes of the last meeting yet. – Sorry – I'll e-mail them to you now.*
> Request and offer:
> *Will you give me a hand with these boxes? – Of course. I'll take the big one.*
> Promise: *Don't worry about the meeting. I will support you.*
> (Duckworth, 2003, p. 51)

Duckworth (ibid) claims that *will* is also used as an expressions of stating facts. This use of *will* can thus interfere with the use of present simple: *Over the next few years, there **will be** a massive increase in TV channels because of the growth in cable, broadband and satellite services.* (Duckworth, 2003, p. 51)

Similarly, Emmerson (2010, p. 38) claims the future progressive form expresses that "something will definitely happen": *We'll be holding a meeting soon, so we can make a decision soon.* But the difference between a hypothetical prediction of strong belief and a factual statement is blurred. Furthermore, *will* is demonstrated to be used to express the 100% degree of possibility but also 0%:

> *In the next 10 years, computers **will definitely** become faster and more powerful.*
> *In the next 10 years, computers **definitely won't** start having feelings and emotions.*
> (Duckworth, 2003, p. 63)

The negative form is also used to express lack of willingness or even refusal: *There's something wrong with the printer. It **won't** print copies in reverse order.* (Duckworth, 2003, p. 51)

8.2.2 Be going to

Be going to expresses an announcement of a plan. It is used both in written and spoken English. Yet, in written English it mainly refers to a new initiative: *A group of private universities in Germany **is going to** introduce a fast-track medical degree course next year.* (Paterson, 2013, p.) Unlike *will, be going to* is more natural when announcing a plan in spoken English. Paterson (ibid) excludes *will* in such contexts:

> *May I start my presentation? Thank you. ~~I will~~ **I'm going to** talk about water conservation today.* (Paterson, 2013, p. 10)

According to this paper, Richard Branson ***is going to*** *buy a second island in the Caribbean.* (Duckworth, 2003, p. 55)

Paterson (2013, p. 153) asserts that the *be going to* construction can also be used in a subordinate conditional clause: *But if we****'re going to*** *find solutions to some of these urban problems, then we'll have to be willing to experiment.* (Paterson, 2013, p. 153)

According to Duckworth (2003, 2006), *be going to* as an expression of prediction requires some physical evidence about the event:

*Can you get some more paper for the printer? – It****'s going to*** *run out any minute.* (Duckworth, 2003, p. 55)
*Look at the time. We****'re going to*** *be late.* (Duckworth, 2006, p. 40)

Duckworth (2003, 2006) also assumes that both *will* and *be going to* are used to make predictions, the difference resulting from the remoteness of futurality. According to the author, *be going to* is used to convey nearer future:

The present government ***will*** *win the election (next year).*
The present government ***is going to*** *win the election (next week).*
(Duckworth, 2003, p. 55)

Other authors declare remoteness to be irrelevant for *be going to* (Emmerson, 2010, p. 34): *"Note that be going to can refer to near or distant time. For example, we can say 'the word is going to end in 8 billion years' because scientists have evidence now."*

Duckworth (2006) states that the phrase is a synonym for *I have decided to*. It can thus be used as an expression of intention or a definite plan. The difference between *will* and *be going to* is thus explained on the basis of the degree of definiteness: *We* ***are going to*** *manufacture the new model, the NV 300, there.* (Duckworth,2006, p. 40)

Unlike Paterson, McCarthy et al. (ibid) present the construction as a means of epistemic modality, expressing a strong belief based on some obvious evidence: *Our results are good – we're going to make budget.* (McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 48) The structure can also be used in conditional clauses as a means of superordinate futurality: *Clients are not going to come to us if our fees are too high.* (McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 48)

8.2.3 Present simple and progressive

In case of fixed arrangements and schedules, present progressive is declared to be a synonym of *will* in academic English:[229] *The UK is hosting/will host a summit in December to discuss the international response to global warming.* (Paterson, 2013, p.11) Duckworth (2003, 2006) explicates the use within spoken discourse:

> *Are you doing anything this weekend? – Yes, I'm playing golf with Barry on Saturday.* (Duckworth, 2003, p. 55)
> *I'm coming to London next Friday.* (Duckworth, 2006, p. 38)

Duckworth (2006) also emphasises that present progressive is used instead of *will* about things that have been arranged to do with someone else: *I am having dinner with Mr Mori tonight.* (Duckworth, 2006, p.38) Duckworth is the only author to declare such a criterion.

Emmerson (2010) distinguishes *be going to* and the present progressive form on the basis of details that are provided by the speaker. The details of the arrangement are open (p. 34):

> *I'm going to meet her next week.* (time and place are not specified)
> *I'm meeting her at ten in my office.* (a definite arrangement with a time and place)

Thus the future time expression is almost an indispensable complement of the futural present progressive use.

Duckworth (2003, 2006) attempts to declare relevant selection criteria of the futural constructions as follows:

- Present progressive is used for arrangements except stative verbs
- *Be going to* is used for decisions and intentions
- *Be going to* expresses predictions
- *Will* is used for spontaneous decisions
- *Will* is used for promises, offers and requests
- *Will* is used for general predictions

Unlike Paterson, McCarthy et al. (ibid) present the present progressive tense as an expression of future arrangements. It arises only implicitly from the examples that this use is typical of spoken rather written discourse: *Next Tuesday, I'm giving a presentation in the conference room at ten o'clock.* (McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 48)

McCarthy et al. (ibid) also deal with the differences of the present progressive tense and the *be going to* construction. The difference is explicated on the basis of the stage of

229 This scale of Paterson's does not correspond to the findings of our corpus-based study (see below).

the arrangement. The present progressive form assumes that the plan has been agreed upon and is located in place and time. The progressive form is usually complemented with particular expressions of time or place. Unlike *be going to,* the present progressive tense cannot be used as a prediction based on evidence, future intentions and future states (together with state verbs).[230]

Present simple and present progressive forms are used mainly to express intention with verbs of intention (*to want, to intend, to plan*). Present simple is used as a synonym of *will* in schedules:

> *The theatre company begins/will begin its tour in Chicago in May.* (Paterson, 2013, p.11)
> *The meeting starts at 9:30. (*McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 52*)*

But Emmerson (2010, p. 38) presents the present simple and present progressive equally in such situations (regularity based on a fixed timetable, program or calendar):

> *Jim leaves (is leaving) at 12.20.*
> *Our boss retires (is retiring) next year.*

Duckworth (2006) exemplifies schedules within spoken discourse: *Do you know the train times to Munich this afternoon? – Yes, there's a train that leaves at 2.35, and it gets in at 4.10. And there's a later one that goes at 3.20 and arrives at 5.05.* (Duckworth, 2006, p. 38)

The present simple tense can also describe the purpose of the whole or parts of an academic work: *This essay will examine/examines to what extent full political participation is realised in three mature democracies.* (Paterson, 2013, p.93) In subordinate clauses, the present simple tense is used as a subordinate future form: *I'll let you know as soon as he arrives.* (McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 52)

McCarthy et al. (ibid) present the following differentiation criteria explicitly:

- *Will* and *be going to* are used to make predictions. While the *be going to* structure expresses the existence of present evidence, *will* results from a personal opinion.
- *Will* future does not rest on existing plans. A future arrangement is conveyed by the *be going to* construction or the present progressive tense.
- State verbs can only be used with *will* not *be going to*. The present progressive form cannot express future states.

It is apparent that the criteria distribute the core futural expressions on a probability continuum as follows: (more probable) *present simple* > *present progressive* > *be going to* > *will* (less probable).

230 These explanations might be misleading since talking about an arranged action is always based on evidence of the planning. Similarly, planning can often be intentional.

Regarding *will* as a means of probability, authors are inconsistent. McCarthy et al. (2009) present two contrary uses:

- Predictions based on opinion (less probable)
  We probably won't get next year's budget on time. (McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 52)
- Future facts (more probable)
  This company will be 100 years old in September. (McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 52)

McCarthy et al. declare synonymy of the *be going to* construction and the future progressive tense when they refer to events that are decided and planned: *I'll be meeting the new team later this month.* (McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 56) McCarthy et al. provide no criteria considering other discourse parameters (e.g., formality level or medium).

8.2.4 Be (due) to, be about to, be on the point of

Paterson (2013, p. 11) defines the *be to* construction as a synonym of *will*. *Be to* and *be due to* are used as more formal alternatives of *will* conveying decisions, plans and requirements: *The USA and Argentina are to/are due to sign a new trade agreement in January next year.* (Paterson, 2013, p.11)

Emmerson (2010, p. 38) presents *be due to* as an expression of expectation. In terms of remoteness, it refers to near future: *He is due to name his replacement as CEO within the next two days. Be about to* and *be on the point of* indicate immediate future and are used synonymously: *Scientists are about to test/are on the point of testing the prototype of a scheme to cool parts of the atmosphere.*

McCarthy et al. (ibid) consider the *be to* structure (paraphrased by *will*) as a very formal futural expression common in writing. The *be due to* (paraphrased by *be going to*) construction formulates future at a particular time or date. *Be about to* (paraphrased by *will*) can be used about future that will happen very soon:

> *The European Union is to introduce new health and safety regulations in the coming year.*
> *The company is about to launch a new range of sports clothing.*
> *Several major companies are due to announce half-year dividends next week.*
> (McCarthy et al., 2009, p. 60)

McCarthy et al. do not explicate the use of *be on the point of* structure.

8.2.5 Other expressions

Besides all the core futural expressions, the above presented textbooks also elaborate other constructions, namely modal verbs and lexical expressions. According to Paterson (2013, p. 100) *"modal verbs are a key tool for expressing a writer's attitude or point of view in academic English"*. For instance, ability in the future is most frequently expressed by *be able to*. It can be used with the core expressions of futurality or with verbs that convey implicit future meaning:

> *If the building contractors start work on the refurbishment of the theatre in May, the owners* ***will be able to reopen*** *it for performances in October.* (Paterson, 2013, p. 101)
> *The NHS* ***hopes to be able to open*** *six new cancer clinics in the next five years.* (Paterson, 2013, p. 101)

Declaring something to be possible and (im)probable in the present or future is realised by the modal verbs *may, might* and *could*. These modal verbs can also be modified in terms of remoteness: *Indeed, the government may not/might not find a solution to the housing problem in the foreseeable future.* (Paterson, 2013, p.102) The difference between the modals consists in their degree of possibility that they express. Paterson (ibid) defines the hypothetical continuum as follows: *may > could > might.*

Might is more cautious than *will*. Thus, the various modal verbs can be used as means of hedging. *We might see (We will see) a significant rise in the repossession of houses as mortgage holders become unable to make their monthly repayments.* (Paterson, 2013, p.128)

Logical necessity and deduction in the present and future are expressed by the verbs *must, should, ought to* and *have to*, the difference among the verbs being in their strength. *Should* and *ought to* are weaker than *must* and *have to*. Frequency is also claimed to be a relevant difference. According to Paterson (2013, p. 103) hypothetical *have to* is less frequent than *must*.

Other futural constructions are preferred in spoken discourse such as *be supposed to, would like to, would mind, can, could, should* and *had better*:

> ***Would you like*** *me to tell the rest of the group that we'll be in the computer lab?* (Paterson, 2013, p.105)
> *I* ***could*** *do the introduction to the presentation, if you like.* (Paterson, 2013, p.105)
> *You* ***can*** *do some revision while we're waiting.* (Paterson, 2013, p.105)
> ***Would*** *you mind giving out the handouts while I'm starting the presentation?* (Paterson, 2013, p.105)

Are we supposed *to take notes?* (Paterson, 2013, p.105)
I think you ***should*** *show those figures on a graph.* (Paterson, 2013, p.105)
*You'****d better*** *not work all night if you have an exam tomorrow.* (Paterson, 2013, p.105)

Stronger probability can also be conveyed by modal *should* and lexical phrases such as *be (un)likely*:

The clean-up of the rice fields contaminated by salt during the tsunami ***should*** *be completed soon.* (Paterson, 2013, p.128)
People who take no exercise and eat a great deal of 'junk food' ***are likely to*** *become obese.* (Paterson, 2013, p.128)

Be likely to become obese is claimed to be more cautious than *will become obese* but less cautious than *could become obese*.

Besides *will*, other verbs can be used in conditional clauses, namely *may, should, be (un)likely* to express futurality. All of them express less certain results:

A further outbreak of fighting ***should*** *be avoided if both sides come to the negotiating table.* (Paterson, 2013, p.154)
Experiments have shown that if someone in uniform approaches members of the public and instructs them to do something, they ***are likely to*** *obey.* (Paterson, 2013, p.154)
We ***may*** *see some improvement in the automatic translation of web pages if there is a greater investment in academic research in the area.* (Paterson, 2013, p.154)

Would and *might* are used in conditional clauses that are more hypothetical and less probable about what might happen in the present and future: *If we paid in dollars instead of sterling,* ***would*** *we get a discount on a bulk purchase?* (Paterson, 2013, p.155)

Emmerson (2010, p. 38) enumerates other futural expressions, namely verbs: *expect, hope, intend, would like, plan* and *want*. Emmerson (ibid) interprets modality as a specific way of expressing futurality in terms of probability. He proposes the following scale:

100%	certainty	*will, be certain to*
95 – 100%	deduction	*must, can't*
80%	expectation	*should, shouldn't, ought to, ought not to, be likely to, be unlikely to*
30 – 70%	uncertainty	*may, may not, might, might not, could*
0%	certainty	*won't*

8.2.6 Statistical analysis and conclusions

The analysis of textbooks proves that there are discrepancies in the interpretation of futurality between authors. In total, 225 instances of the core futural expressions were analysed.

It is apparent that each author is concerned with futurality to a different extent. The different proportions can reflect the significance of futurality according to the authors of the textbooks and grammar books. Obviously, grammar books (Duckworth, Emmerson) will contain a higher proportion of instances in comparison with textbooks. But there are textbooks (Kaftan, Yates) that pay no explicit attention to futurality as a linguistic phenomenon at all.

If we consider the medium of discourse (written versus spoken), authors seem to explicate instances of future used in speech (45.78 %) rather than in writing (0.45 %) but they prefer neutral instances (53.77 %). The medium cannot be identified due to the lack of co-text and context. The spoken medium can be identified namely in dialogic instances, but authors represent futurality by means of single-sentence exemplars. No examples of coherent texts or paragraphs demonstrating the use of futurality were found in the books.

Textbook	Spoken discourse	Written discourse	Ambiguous/Neutral	Total no.
Duckworth (2003)	20	0	23	43
Duckworth (2006)	17	0	17	34
McCarthy et al. (2009)	39	1	44	84
Kaftan M., et al. (2006)	2	0	17	19
Kaftan M. (2010)	0	0	0	0
Yates (1998)	0	0	1	1
Ellman P. (2014)	0	0	1	1
Emmerson P. (2010)	25	0	18	43
Total no.	103	1	121	225

Table 13: Number of instances according to discourse and medium

Considering the content and situational context, it is paradoxical that authors of ESP textbooks and grammar books exemplify futurality using unprofessional instances (38.11 %). Occupational items account for 32.88 % of all the exemplars. The preference results from the orientation of the English for business purposes books. Business English textbooks are often used in English for economists university courses, although the two registers, i.e., their tenor, field and mode differ (Halliday, 1979). It is disputable whether such materials can convey the appropriate academic context and use of language features in the truly economic discourse. Only 3.1 % of the exemplars can be indentified strictly as academic (professional). The remaining 28.84 % are neutral with respect to the content and situation.

Textbook	Academic/ Professional	Occupational	Unprofessional (neutral, general)	Ambiguous	Total no.
Duckworth (2003)	0	6	11	26	43
Duckworth (2006)	0	7	22	5	34
McCarthy et al. (2009)	6	38	25	15	84
Kaftan M., et al. (2006)	0	2	17	0	19
Kaftan M. (2010)	0	0	0	0	0
Yates C. (1998)	1	0	0	0	1
Ellman P. (2014)	0	0	0	1	1
Emmerson P. (2010)	0	21	13	9	43
Total no.	7	74	88	56	225

Table 14: Number of instances according to content and situation

It is thus obvious that the discoursal phenomena and parameters of the books do not provide discernible and distinctive exemplars conveying the use of futural constructions in the academic/professional economic context. The wide and varied target group of English for specific purpose textbooks requires exemplars that are neutral in terms of medium (written and spoken) and field (professional versus unprofessional). Such a wide range of instances makes the exemplification and interpretation of futural structures vague, blurred and unclear.

The materials also provide inconsistent explanations in a number of ways. Some authors (Duckworth, ibid) consider remoteness as a crucial criterion while others (Paterson, ibid) ignore it. There are even authors who oppose and disprove the principle of remoteness (Emmerson, ibid). Only Emmerson (ibid) claims that the structure *be due to* refers to near future. While Emmerson (ibid) presents the present futurate as a synonym for

the present progressive form, other authors (McCarthy, Paterson, ibid) distinguish the two strictly. Only one author (Paterson, ibid) clearly explicates the use of futural constructions with respect to the mode (spoken and written), level of politeness, formality, and frequency.

In addition, certain explanations can be found dubious and misleading. In comparison with the collected corpus, we cannot confirm that verbs expressing the speaker's personal mental attitude to the propositional content (e.g., *expect, think, doubt*) require the use of *will* as some of the authors (Emmerson, McCarthy, Paterson, ibid) declare. The corpus data disprove this claim.

Similarly, authors differ in the interpretation of modality force of the various futural and modal structures. Some rules even contradict the others. For instance, if *will* is referred to as a speaker's statement of experience (co-occurring with the verbs *think, expect,* or *believe*), it can hardly express 100% certainty (Duckworth, Emmerson, McCarthy, ibid). Authors also differ in the probability scaling of the expressions. Emmerson claims that *may*, *might* and *could* are equal in terms of probability, but Paterson distinguishes the three (*may>could>might*).

9 GENERAL AND SPECIFIC LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY: THE LEVEL OF ACQUISITION OF FUTURAL CONSTRUCTIONS IN GENERAL AND ECONOMIC CONTEXT

9.1 HYPOTHESES

The aim of the empirical study[231] is to analyse, find and prove or disprove relations between the general language proficiency and specific language proficiency in terms of the acquisition of the core futural constructions. The hypotheses of the research are as follows:

H1/ There is a relation between the general language proficiency and specific language proficiency in terms of the core futural expressions.

H1a/ The level of the general language proficiency is higher than the specific language proficiency in terms of the core futural expressions.

H1b/ The higher the level of the general language proficiency is, the higher the level of the specific language proficiency will be in terms of the core futural expressions.

H2/ Students are able to notice a wider range of the expressions of futurality than the core. Thus they are able to notice the phenomenon of futurality without any explicit instruction.

H3/ An impact of the negative interlanguage transfer (interference) in both the general and specific language proficiency will be significant, namely in terms of subordinate futurality.

H4/ An impact of the negative intralanguage transfer (overgeneralisation) will be significant.

H4a/ Students will tend to use the whole variety of futural constructions with respect to the rules applicable only in the general context.

H4b/ Students will tend to omit stylistic aspects of the specific discourse (academic, written, economic).

H5/ More general as well as more specific context (i.e., contextualisation) improve students' scores regardless of the level of specificity.

9.2 TEST PARAMETERS

The test was composed on the basis of the above hypotheses. It consisted of three separate parts. The first part assessed students' command of the core futural expressions in general context. This part included two sections: context-bound and context-unbound. The former (context-bound) section comprised thirteen isolated multiple-choice items.

231 Empirical in terms of the tested hypotheses with respect to differences, relations and consequences among variables. (Maňák et al., 2005, p. 44)

Respondents were offered from four to six options. One option was assumed to be ideal[232]. The latter (context-unbound) section comprised nineteen items to be filled in a coherent piece of text. Respondents were assigned to fill in a given verb in a form conveying futurality (see Appendix 2).

The second part assessed students' ability to notice and identify an expression of futurality in a contextualised professional economic text. Respondents were not given any clue regarding where the futural constructions might have been located (see Appendix 2).

The third part assessed students' command of the core futural expressions in specific (economic) context. This part included two sections: context-bound and context-unbound. The first (context-bound) section comprised fourteen isolated multiple-choice items. Respondents were offered from four to six options. One option was assumed to be ideal. The second (context-unbound) section comprised ten items to be filled in a coherent piece of text. Respondents were assigned to fill in a given verb in a form conveying futurality. In this part, respondents were informed that all the tested items were excerpted from professional economic books. No instructions regarding the discourse specifics in terms of the use of futural constructions were provided (see Appendix 2).

Within testing, respondents were also asked to mark the degree of their comprehension of the items and texts included. The standard marking scheme was used which Czech students are accustomed with (1 marking the best comprehension, 5 marking the worst comprehension).

9.3 TARGET GROUP

The pre-tested group included twenty-eight university undergraduate students of financial and actuarial mathematics from Charles University, the Faculty of Mathematics and Physics. This group was selected as its members have to deal with economic issues, and the study programme is composed of a number of economic subjects (accounting, financial studies, financial management, bank studies, economics, public finance, actuarial studies, insurance law). Thus, the students are expected to be highly motivated[233] to deal with economic issues and have the necessary background knowledge.

232 Ideal means a) the most frequent with respect to the corpus-based study findings, and b) appropriate in terms of the pragmatic and stylistic aspects of professional economic texts (books).
233 The level of inner motivation is supposed to be one of the dependent variables. (Maňák, 2005, p. 90)

The target group involved in testing the hypotheses was to comprise university students of the study programme Economy and management defined by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports of the Czech Republic under the code B 6208 (bachelor study programmes). This selection is assumed to ensure homogeneity in terms of the necessary economic knowledge base. Students of economic areas within the study programme Economy and management are also supposed to be motivated to deal with economic topics. In addition, potential professionals in economic, business and managerial studies are expected to achieve an excellent command in English to be competitive enough in the national and international labour market.

Two higher education institutions were involved in the testing, comprising 136 respondents. Seventy-nine students from the University of Economics (public institution) and fifty-seven students from the University of Finance and Administration (private institution) were assigned the test within a thirty-minute time limit.

9.4 RESULTS OF PRE-TESTING

9.4.1 Statistical analysis

A number of statistical parameters are investigated. We calculate the average scores (%) in the three test parts to see what the results are in the general and specific context. The differences between the proficiency levels might then be compared. Subsequently, the correlation coefficient is calculated to prove what the relation between the two proficiencies is (H1).[234]

To explore the positive impact of contextualisation, the results of correlation are analysed with respect to context-bound and context-unbound tasks (H5). To observe the degree of students' comprehension of the context (contextualisation can only be helpful if students are able to understand it), we also investigate the correlation between the quantitative self-assessment of comprehension and the scores achieved in both the context-bound and context-unbound tasks.

234 The pre-tested group was assigned the test at the beginning and at the end of the semester to find out the reliability in terms of dependability. The coefficient of correlation was equal to 0.81, which is a dependability high enough to ensure reliable testing. For practical purposes, only the results of the first assignment at the beginning of the semester will be analysed since we assume the results were not affected by any instruction during the follow-up semester.

Students' ability to notice the phenomenon of futurality (H2) is expressed by the proportion of the total number of futural constructions in the excerption of an original text and the average number of the expressions that respondents are able to identify.

The qualitative aspects of the research (H2, H3, H4) is based on the analysis of students' answers. Particular attention is paid to items with a high rate of errors, i.e., to items with a high degree of difficulty p_i[235]. Items whose $p_i < 0.3$ will be analysed primarily (Byčkovský et al., 2007, p. 34).

If we consider the average scores, it is obvious that respondents achieved better scores in the general context. They were most successful in general context-unbound items (g-cu). The g-cu average score was 77%. The average score of general context-bound section (g-cb) accounted for 63%. The average scores in the economic context-bound (e-cb) and context unbound (e-cu) were almost equal, amounting to 37.5% and 37.1%, respectively (Table 1).

	%
G - CU	77%
G - CB	63%
E - CU	37,50%
E - CB	37,10%

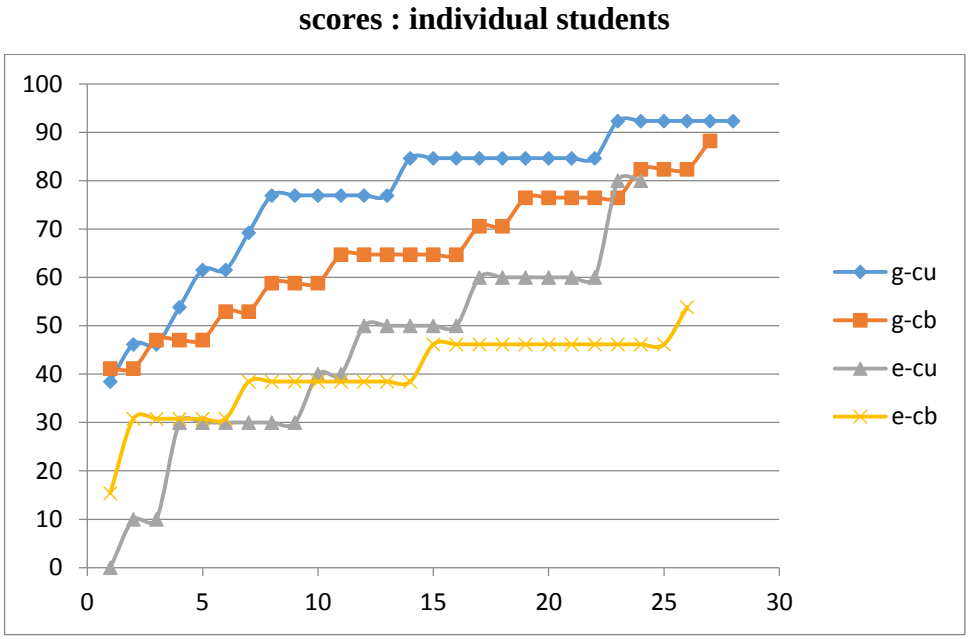
Table 15: Scores in general and economic context-bound and context-unbound sections

If we compare all the four scores of each student (Graph 1), it is apparent that almost all students scored significantly better in the general context than in the economic context. In addition, most respondents (all but one) succeeded better in both the general context-bound and context-unbound sections than in their economic counterparts.[236]

235 The difficulty of an item will be calculated as a ratio of correct answers (Byčkovský et al., 2007, p. 34):
pi … the ratio of correct answers of item *i*
ni … the number of correct answers of item *i*
N … the number of all answers of item *i*

$$p_i = \frac{n_i}{N}$$

236 The comparison of individual scores will be analysed in Results of testing.



Graph 1: Scores of individual respondents in g- and e-sections

We can definitely state that the university undergraduates scored better when the tasks were assigned within general context. But their command of the futural constructions was not good enough to deal with the same tasks in the economic context. We can thus conclude that general proficiency in terms of one grammatical area does not result in specific (economic) proficiency in the same area automatically.

To show that the results were not impacted negatively by the specific economic context (which might cause difficulties with comprehension), the correlation coefficient between the scores and students' comprehension self-assessment is calculated (Table 2).

	Correlation
G-CU	0.21
G-CB	0.64
E-CB	-0,13
E-CU	-0,53

Table 16: Correlation between comprehension and scores in g- and e-sections

It may be assumed that the higher level of comprehension leads to a better performance in a test. Obviously, the highest correlation is reached in the general context-bound section. This proves that if students are provided with more (general) context their better comprehension results in better performance. The same holds for the economic section. But in terms of the economic section, the correlation is indirect. Thus, it can be

concluded that even though students declared good comprehension of the economic texts, they did not succeed.

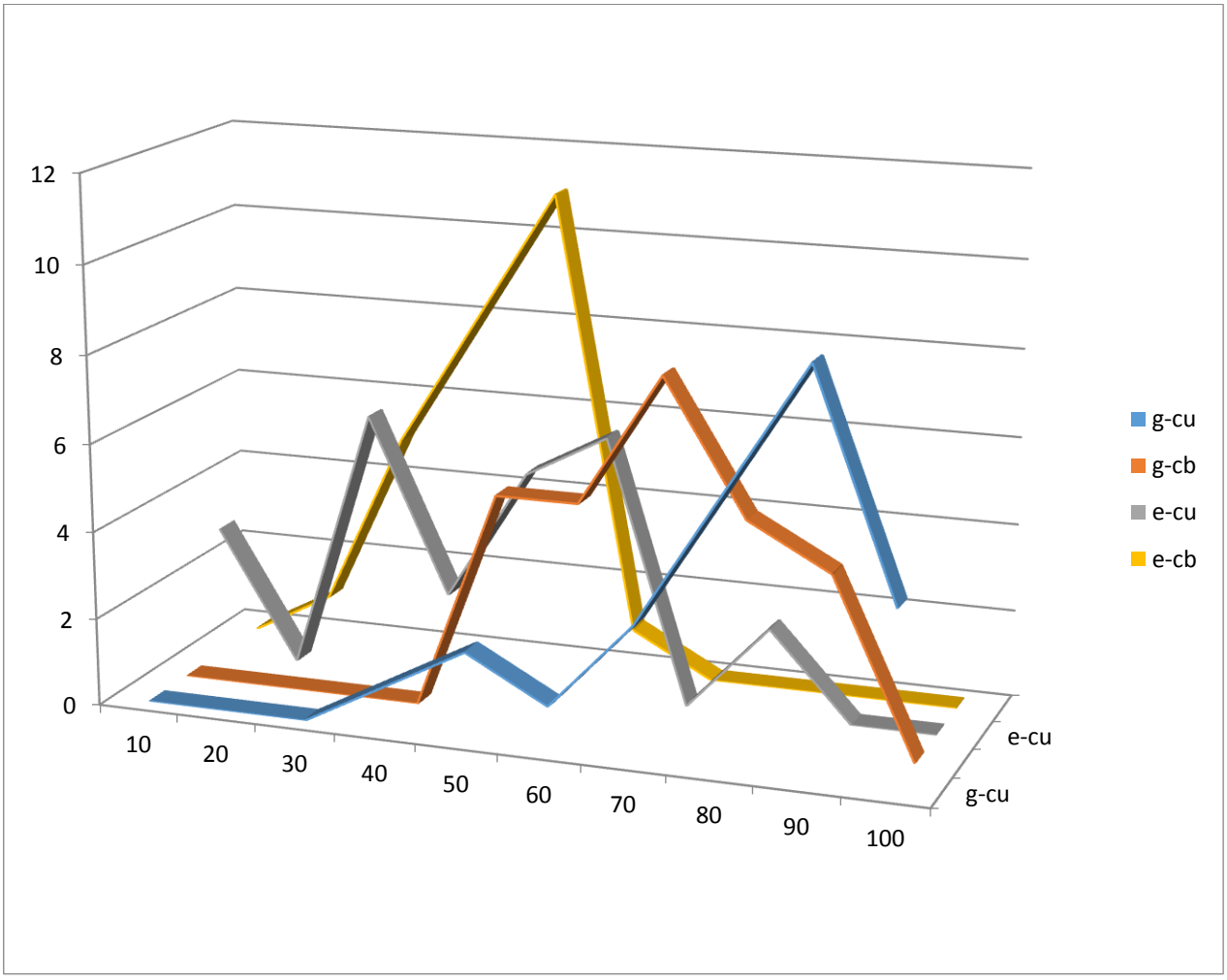
Furthermore, students who understood the economic context better scored worse in a number of instances especially in the e-cu section. The use of futural constructions within the economic context seems to be independent of students' knowledge based on their general proficiency. We can thus conclude that general language proficiency and specific language proficiency in terms of the expressions of futurality are relatively independent. A good command of futural constructions in general context does not result in the same command of futural constructions in a specific (economic) context[237].

Another parameter that can supply a relevant interpretation of the data is the statistical distribution of scores (Graph 2). Considering the general part, both the scores of context-bound and the scores of the context-unbound sections are distributed normally, but the graphs display left-hand skewed distribution. Students' general proficiency in terms of futural constructions is better than the test expected. As undergraduate students are fairly advanced, having passed primary and secondary school English language courses, this course of distribution is fairly presumable.

237 The results make it apparent that scores of context-bound items correlate with the level of students' comprehension better than scores of context-unbound items (Table 2). As the correlation between equivalent forms (in terms of the rate of agreement) is a measure of reliability (Byčkovský et al., 2006, p.10), we can conclude that the sections with contextualised items might be more reliable than the context-unbound sections. More contextualisation might result in greater reliability of the test items. More favourable correlation of the context-bound sections can be seen in Table 3:

	Correlation
G - CU : E - CU	0.166
G - CB: E - CB	0.593

Table 17: Correlation between context-bound and context-unbound scores



Graph 2: Distribution of scores in g- and e-sections

Regarding the specific (economic) section, the scores seem to be distributed normally, with the right-hand skewed course of distribution. In comparison with the general language section, the specific (economic) section was more difficult for most students (Byčkovský et al., 2007, pp. 32 - 33). [238]

238 The bimodal distribution of the e-cu section might reveal the heterogeneity of the investigated statistical file (Škaloudová, 1998, p.27). The bimodal course also reveals the lower correlation between the scores of the context-bound and the scores of the context-unbound specific language sections.

9.4.2 Analysis of mistakes

Section	Suspicious items ($p_i < 0.3$)
g-cu	1 item
g-cb	3 items
e-cu	6 items
e-cb	4 items

Table 18: Number of suspicious items in g- and e-sections

Items in the general language part will be considered first. In both the context-bound and context-unbound sections, items in which a more adequate answer than the selected one was offered were marked as incorrect. This is the case of the following context-unbound item:

(vedoucí protokolu k novinářům) The President _____ his speech at 5 o'clock.

A will give	B might give	C is to give
D is about to give	E is going to give	F is giving

The context of the speech was supposed to be rather formal, as it was given by the head of a presidential protocol. Thus C was assumed to be the most adequate option. A was also accepted as a means of conveying an immediate decision (which is less probable with respect to the situation). Only four respondents chose item C, and three respondents chose A. The most frequent option was F (16 occurrences) and E (5 occurrences). It is apparent that the aspect of formality was surpassed by the aspect of a planned arrangement and respondents either did not consider the context properly or did not match the *be to* construction with a higher level of formality.

In the context-bound section, respondents were not able to apply the perfect aspect (future perfect) in the sentence:

> In August Gordon **/1/ _____** (be) at his company for 25 years …

It is not possible to deduce that students' command of the future perfect tense is poor. In a similar item (see below), seventeen students used the future perfect tense (E) properly:

I save £50 a month and I started in January. So by the end of the year I _____ £600.

A will save	B shall save	C am about to save
D may save	E will have saved	F might save

This discrepancy might imply that students dealt better with the context-unbound item. Due to the lack of broader context, context-unbound items have to contain explicit grammar markers to limit the number of possible options. Thus, the relevant markers can help students select the most adequate option better than the wider context exceeding the scope of one sentence.

In the next most suspicious item (7), two futural aspects were tested. First, the context required to consider a planned arrangement. Second, appropriateness due to certain traffic duties could also be expressed.

> We **/6/** _____ (fly) out to Budapest – we **/7/** _____ (catch) a plane on the 28th – and then we **/8/** _____ (stop) over at a friend's house.

Thus, the forms expressing either of the two aspects were marked as correct (e.g., *shall, should, be going to, be due to*). Eleven respondents filled in *will* (future simple). Similarly, item 8 presupposed a planned arrangement and intention. Therefore, forms such as *be going to*, present progressive (or lexical *would like to*) can be used. But fifteen respondents used *will* (future simple) instead. Obviously, respondents ignored namely the aspect of arrangement. But in comparison with a similar context-unbound item, the score is much lower. For instance, twenty-two respondents chose the correct present progressive form (D) in the following item:

A: Now, how do you want to go to Rome, sir? By air or by train? – B: The trains are too slow. I'll fly. - (po týdnu) B: I _____ to Rome next week.

A will fly	B will be flying	C am to fly
D 'm flying		

The context-bound item within a coherent text was more difficult for students even though the situational context is identical. This difference can again be explained on the basis of grammatical markers, which must be more obvious within a shorter co-text. In context-bound items, ESP learners deduced the aspect of futurality (such as indention or remoteness) from the situational context rather than the co-text.

Out of thirty items in the general language part, only four can be considered as difficult for university undergraduates. This proves that economic undergraduates' general language proficiency in terms of the expressions of futurality is fairly high.

Certain tendencies analysed above prove to be true in the specific (economic) language part too. Even though respondents were instructed that all the sentences and texts had been excerpted from written professional economic texts (books), they did not observe the appropriate level of formality.

For instance, in the context-unbound item describing a future course of an economic parameter, only eight respondents used *will* (C).

This feature is not substantial when demand is low (i.e., in the baseload) but _____ price considerably in the peak.

A	is going to affect	B	is to affect	C	will affect
D	is about to affect	E	is on the point of affecting		

Eleven respondents preferred the *be going to* construction (A) and another four students chose the *be about to* construction (D).

A similar tendency can be seen in an item testing a bit different textual function of *will* (intratextual reference):

In the next section, we _____ from the hedging characteristics to the implications for an ALM portfolio.

A	will advance	B	are going to advance	C	are to advance
D	are about to advance	E	are on the point of advancing		

For intratextual reference, authors of professional economic texts use almost exclusively *will* or *shall*, but only eight respondents chose the option (A). Instead, ten respondents preferred the inappropriate *be going to* structure. This proves to be true also in the following item, where *will* is not included at all.

Research Article 4 The Empirical Estimations Based on the model provided in (1) and (2) above, the following three reduced-form equations _____ in this study: ...

A	are going to be estimated	B	are to be estimated	C	are about to be estimated
D	are destined to be estimated	E	are being estimated		

Ten respondents chose the present progressive form (E) and another six students preferred the *be going to* construction (A). The respondents apparently assumed the reference to be intentional and arranged by the authors. We can thus conclude that respondents apply the

rules derived from the general context and do not respect the rules adequate for the specific (economic) context (such as the level of formality or the statistical occurrence).

The same mistake applies to the function of defining. The decision of respondents was made harder as the more frequent *will* was omitted and *shall* was supposed to be the most adequate option in the following item.

We _____ to this non-negative profit constraint hereafter as the NNP constraint.
A are to refer B are going to refer C are referring
D shall refer E are about to read

Only five respondents selected *shall* (D). Nine respondents chose *be going to* construction (B) and nine respondents preferred the present progressive form (C), which is one of the least frequent forms in the economic discourse. Respondents also tend to perceive defining as something intentional and pre-arranged by the authors. This proves that students tend to apply rules that hold for the general context and which are not applicable in a professional economic text.

The same tendency can be observed in a similar item:

As we _____ below the employment dynamics prior to retirement introduces significant complexities.
A are going to see B are to see C are about to see
D shall see E are seeing

Only five respondents selected the option with *shall* (D). Eleven respondents preferred the *be about to* structure (C) and seven respondents chose the *be going to* structure (A). It thus appears that students tend to perceive this situation as an expression of immediate futurality marked by *below*. This shows again that respondents applied the rule of immediacy in a specific context where it is not applicable at all according to the results of the corpus-based study (see Chapter 7).

Lack of appropriate grammatical markers seems to confuse respondents even in the specific (economic) context in terms of the future perfect tense. Only two respondents recognised that a reason must have preceded the effects in the following item where no other marker is provided:

It will not be sufficient to restore them to pre-crisis levels unless permanent cuts in expenditure are planned, because there _____ an increase in government debt – arising from the reduced taxes and increased social benefits during the crisis.
A will be B is going to be C shall be
D will have been E are about to be

Sixteen respondents used the future simple tense (*will/shall*) (A, B). Eight respondents preferred the *be going to* structure (B).

The vast majority of students failed to deal with futurality as a means of expressing hypotheses in the e-context unbound section. Even though respondents were explicitly asked to express futurality in an extract hypothesising about the role of competition, they were not able to hedge the hypothetical statement enough. For instance, in the very first item:

> But the power of competition **[1]** _____ (be) overestimated., only three respondents used a hedging device, either *will/shall not* or *should not*. Twelve respondents preferred the present simple tense, and another three students used present progressive. No *might* or *may* forms occurred.

The same tendency appears with the fifth item:

> Corruption and the power to allocate rents to supporters **[5]** _____ (be) helpful instruments to guarantee political survival,

in which the present tense (simple or progressive) definitely prevailed (10 occurrences). Still, more hedging devices were used than in the first item. Six respondents used *will* and one respondent preferred *may*. The formality level was also expressed inappropriately by the *be going to* construction in four instances. Little hedging occurred in the rest of the extract too:

> Competition alone **[8]** _____ (be) insufficient to ensure that benevolence among the leadership prevails. In this respect, recent empirical evidence on the impact of electoral systems on corruption is illustrative, demonstrating that electoral systems **[9]** _____ (enhance) competition among candidates, but…

The present simple and progressive tense in item 8 occurred in ten instances and in item 9 in eight instances. The rather inappropriate *be going to* and *be about to* structures were also frequent (four instances in item 8, six instances in item 9). Only eight respondents were able to hedge the futural hypothesising in both the items (seven instances of *will* and one instance of *may* in item 8, six instances of *will* and 2 instances of *may* in item 9). *Will* is obviously the prevailing means of hedging in hypothesising clusters.

9.5 RESULTS OF TESTING

The target group comprised 79 bachelor students from the University of Economics (UE) and 57 bachelor students from the University of Finance and Administration (UFA).

9.5.1 Statistical analysis

In both the UE and UFA groups, respondents scored significantly better in the general part. The mean score of the UE group in the general part of the test was 55.7 % and in the economic amounted to 33.2%. Similarly, the UFA group scored better in the general part (55%). The mean score in the economic part was 38%, which was slightly higher in comparison with the UE score. The results of the two groups seem to be very similar, thus the test appears to be fairly reliable, which confirms the high level of dependability detected in the pre-testing.

Institution	Part	Mean Score
University of Economics (79 respondents)	General part	55.7%
	Economic part	33.2
University of Finance and Administration (57 respondents)	General part	55%
	Economic part	38.2 %

Table 19: Mean scores in g- and e-parts

In comparison with the pre-tested group, the scores of the general part are lower by approximately 15 %. The results of the economic part are almost equal. This also suggests that the levels of the general and specific proficiencies might be rather independent. In any case, in terms of futurality constructions, the general proficiency level is apparently higher than the specific (economic) proficiency level on average in both the groups. Thus, undergraduates of the Economy and Management study programmes definitely deal better with futurality in general rather than economic context.

A more serious analysis can be deduced from the results of the particular sections (Table 5 and Table 6). The results in both the UE and UFA groups correlate. Respondents reached the highest scores in the general context-unbound section and the lowest scores in

the economic context-unbound section. This proves that the magnitude of context itself is not the decisive factor affecting a student's performance.

UE	%
G – CU	70.9
G – CB	45.3
E – CU	23.7
E – CB	46.5

Table 20: Scores of UE students in g- and e-sections

UFA	%
G – CU	69
G – CB	45.4
E – CU	26.4
E – CB	54.6

Table 21: Scores of UFA students in g- and e-sections

The mutual interdependence between the general language proficiency and the specific language proficiency can be explored by means of correlations. Higher correlation might reveal that good general language command results in a better performance in the specific (economic) part.

University of Economics	
general : economic	0.29
g-cu : e-cu	0.07
g-cb : g- cb	0.36

Table 22: Correlation of g- and e-scores of UE respondents

University of Finance and Administration	
general : economic	0.10
g-cu : e-cu	-0.04
g-cb : g- cb	0.22

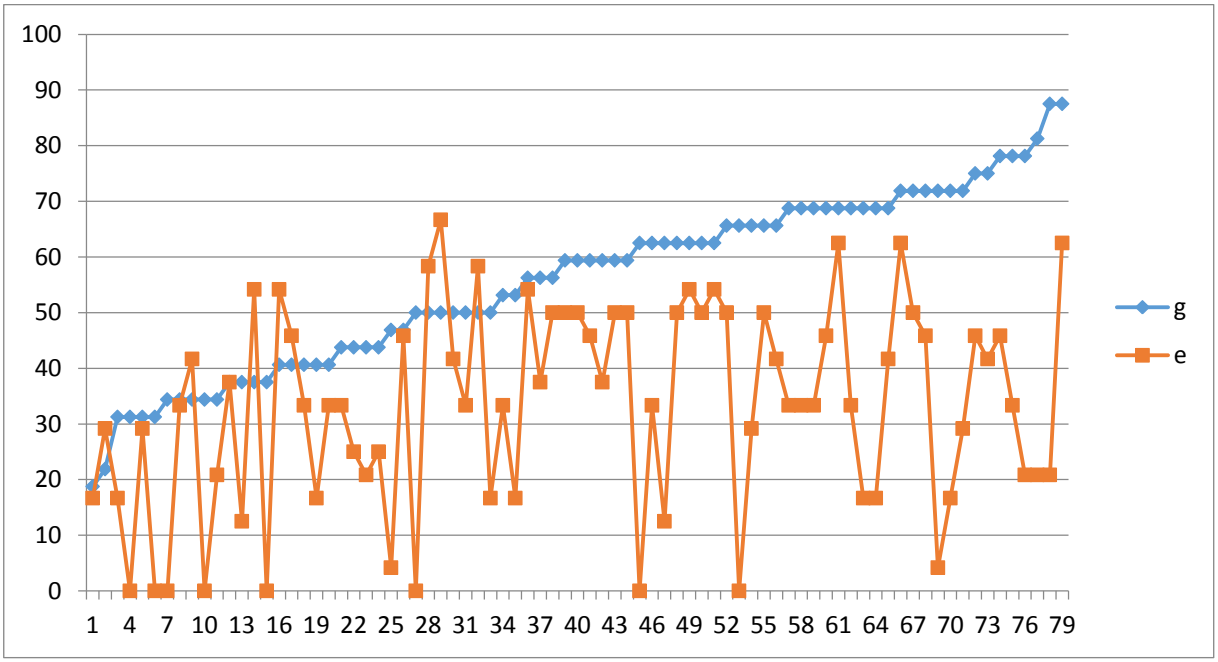
Table 23: Correlation of g- and e-scores of UFA respondents

The correlation coefficients of both the groups (Table 7 and Table 8) suggest that there is almost no correlation between the results of economic undergraduates in the general and economic parts. Higher correlation can only be observed if more context is provided. Still, this correlation is not as high as with the pre-tested group. It can thus be concluded that general language proficiency does not result in the same level of specific (economic) language proficiency in terms of futural constructions even when more context is supplied.

The explanation can be found in the course of the curve of results, sequenced with respect to the general part scores (g-curve) (see Graph 3 and Graph 4). The lack of correlation becomes apparent from the shape of the curve of the economic part scores (e-curve). While the g-curve is increasing, the course of the e-curve is oscillating, irrespective of the general part score, which holds for both the UE and UFA groups.

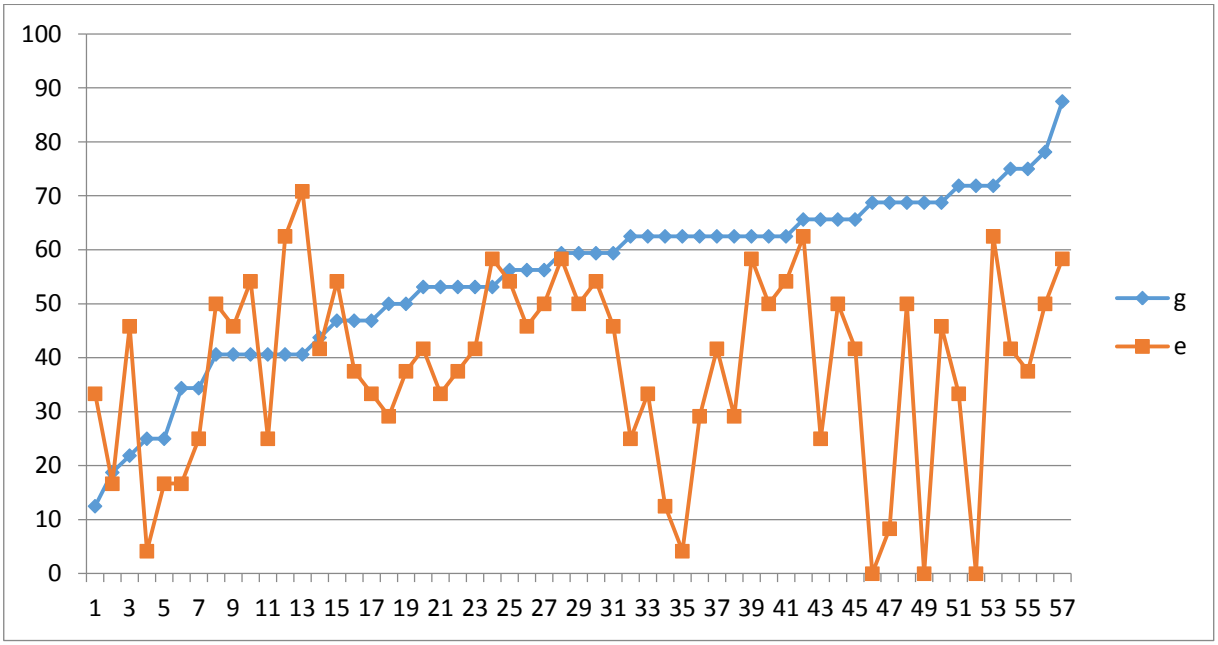
Out of 79 UE respondents, only 7 students scored significantly better in the economic part than in the general part. It might be surprising that all the 7 students reached lower scores in the general part. The differences between g-scores and e-scores increase with higher g-scores (Graph 3).

University of Economics (UE)



Graph 3: UE e-scores with respect to increasing g-scores

Very similar results can be observed in the UFA group curves. Out of 57 respondents, only 9 students reached higher scores in the economic part. The differences between g-scores and e-scores also increase with higher g-scores (Graph 4).



Graph 4: UFA e-scores with respect to increasing g-scores

We can thus conclude that general language proficiency does not result in the same level of specific (economic) language proficiency. Furthermore, the greater the general language proficiency is, the greater the differences between the proficiencies are. This tendency can be explained as follows. The greater the command of futural expressions is in general context, the wider is the variety of futural expressions which students use. They are simply able to express futurality in a more accurate and complex way. The higher general language proficiency can thus lead to negative intralanguage transfer in items where general language rules cannot be applied. Greater general language proficiency might lead to greater overgeneralisations in terms of the pragmatic, stylistic and functional aspects. Respondents with weaker command of futurality in the general context use a narrower range of futural constructions. If they are able to use the most essential and frequent forms (such as *will*), they can succeed in the specific (economic context) better than more proficient respondents. The analysis of the pragmatic overgeneralisation will be provided on the basis of the analysis of the most difficult test items.

9.5.2 Error analysis

Analogously to the pre-test, particular attention will be paid to items whose degree of difficulty p_i is less than 0.3 (Byčkovský et al., 2007, p. 34).

University of Economics

Section	Suspicious items ($p_i < 0.3$)
g-cu	1 item
g-cb	6 items
e-cu	9 items
e-cb	0 items

Table 24: Number of suspicious items in UE responses

University of Finance and Administration

Section	Suspicious items ($p_i < 0.3$)
g-cu	1 item
g-cb	5 items
e-cu	10 items
e-cb	0 items

Table 25: Number of suspicious items in UFA responses

On the basis of the number of difficult items, it may become apparent that the statistics are very similar. The part comprising the most difficult items for both the groups was the decontextualised economic section. We can now consider if there exist any matchings of the suspicious items between the UE and UFA groups. If such matchings can be found, it can help reveal grammatical phenomena that are probably difficult for all undergraduates of the program Economy and Management.[239]

Section	Matchings
g-cu	1 (item 10)
g-cb	5 (items 1, 2, 4, 7, 19)
e-cu	8 (items 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13)
e-cb	0

Table 26: Number of matchings between UE and UFA suspicious items

239 In addition, the high correlation of matchings shall prove the high reliability of the testing tool.

Out of 18 suspicious items, 14 items were equally difficult for the respondents in both the groups. It shows that economic undergraduates tend to make similar mistakes. It might therefore by possible to identify and delimit aspects of futurality that are susceptible to errancy.

9.5.2.1 General context-unbound section

In the general context-unbound section, it was only item 10 that was difficult for all students. This item aimed at using the most formal expression of futurality. The most appropriate in the situation (i.e., presidential speech) is likely to be the *be to* form. Only 15% of UE respondents and 26% of UFA respondents preferred this form. The level of formality was surpassed by the intentional and arranging aspect of futurality[240]. The vast majority of students preferred the *be going to* construction (UE: 24%; UFA: 33%) or the present progressive form (UE: 54%; UFA: 43%). Among other options, the *be about to* structure was used (UE: 6%, UFA: 10.5%) even though no immediateness was proposed and an exact time of the speech was specified.

9.5.2.2 General context-bound section

In the general context-bound section, 4 items were demanding for both the groups. Item 1 tested the respondents' ability to use the future perfect tense if an explicit grammar marker is given (*In August Gordon /**1**/ _____ (be) at his company for 25 years…*). Only 15% of UE respondents and 14% of UFA respondents were able to identify the most appropriate form. The post-indication given by Gordon's being in a company for some time was not recognisable for the vast majority of economic undergraduates. They preferred the future simple tense most (UE: 53%; UFA: 56%). Obviously, some respondents were able to distinguish the post-indication, but chose an incorrect form: past, past perfect or present perfect (UE: 9%; UFA: 8.7%). Some respondents were so confused by the necessity to express post-indication within futurality that they continued using past, past perfect and present perfect forms. Another frequent form is the *be going to* construction (UE: 10%; UFA 12.3%). This form is inappropriate

240 Even though the *be to* form expresses plans and arrangements itself, it is used in a formal style to talk about official plans and arrangements (Swan, 2005, p.80): *The President is to visit Nigeria next month.*

since no intention is to be conveyed in the context of the item. In addition, certainty based on some present evidence is excluded by the further context where an arrangement of relevant consequences is expressed. Thus, the first item requires expressions of factual statements.

From the context, it is apparent that the arrangements of travelling and holiday abroad have been decided upon. The act of decision was not taken into consideration by most respondents. The greatest degree of certainty and a planned arrangement must be expressed in the context of the bonus to be paid as well as the organisation of the holiday. Only a minimum of respondents assumed that the bonus of holiday must have been pre-arranged and the present progressive form is the most appropriate (UE: 3.8%; UFA: 8.8%). The most preferred form was the future simple tense, which was inappropriate as no prediction was made in the case (UE: 47%; 35%). The *be going to* form expressing a lower degree of certainty based on present evidence is less appropriate but acceptable; still, it was not as frequent as *will* (UE: 17.7%; UFA: 28%).

Item 4 is designed to test respondents' ability to use the infinitival form to express futurality. Only few economic undergraduates considered the infinitive to convey futurality (UE: 29%; UFA: 28%). Furthermore, they attempted to use convenient forms (*will*, *be going to*, *shall*, present progressive) that were not acceptable from the structural point of view. A large number of respondents (UE: 21.5%; UFA: 21%) used *will* (in the simple or progressive form). The auxiliary *will* appears to dominate even in items where it is inappropriate syntactically. Some respondents apparently do not consider the infinitive as an expression of futurality and postpone the futural meaning by means of *will* (*our aim will be to visit*), expressing future in the future (UE: 6.3%; 10.5%).

Items 7 and 8 test respondents' ability to recognise appropriateness and a planned arrangement. In item 7, the phrase *to catch a plane on 28th* means *to be in time for plane on 28th* and *to reach the plane just in time* (unlike *to take a plane*). Even though the date presupposes an arrangement of a plan, the act of catching (i.e., being in time) can hardly be planned. Thus, expressions of intention without any explicit arrangement (*be going to*) or expressions of appropriateness (*should, shall, need, be due to*) might be the most adequate forms. Only a minority of respondents used the *be going to* construction (UE: 22.8%; UFA: 15.8%). Still, the most frequent form was the completely inappropriate *will* (UE: 33%; UFA: 38.6%). A number of respondents supposed that the act of catching was plannable and thus used the present progressive form (UE: 17.7%; UFA: 15.8%).

In item 8 it was presupposed that the author either plans *to stop over at a friends' house* (*be going to*, present progressive, *would like*) or hypothesises about the possibility to do so (*may*, *might*) (UE: 22.8%; UFA: 33.3%). But most respondents preferred the future simple tense again (UE: 48%; UFA: 47.3%).

The last suspicious item in the general context-unbound section is item 19. This item completed the text about the planned trip and the author's aim is to either express the factual statement about what *will be happening* at that time in just two months, or a certainty based on the evidence presented and described in detail throughout the text (*be going to*). If probability were to be expressed, the author would use auxiliaries such as *may* or *might*. Respondents definitely preferred the simple future tense (UE: 34.2%; UFA: 43.9%). Some respondents again considered the act of *having the time of their lives* as plannable and used the present progressive tense (UE: 8.9%; UFA: 10.5%). In addition, a high proportion of the expressions of immediate futurality (*be about to*) were used (UE: 6.3%; UFA: 3.5%) even though the immediate interpretation is excluded as the arrangement of the trip takes place two months in advance.

9.5.2.3 Economic context-bound section

In the economic context-bound section, the largest number of difficult items were found (UE: 9; UFA: 10). The vast majority of the difficulties were common for both the groups (8 matchings). Mistakes were identified in both probability clusters and intratextual references.

In the first item, a high, almost axiomatic, probability is assessed. The choice of *will* was difficult mainly for the UFA group (UE: 39.2%; UFA: 28%). One of the most preferred options was the *be going to* construction (UE: 21.5% ;UFA: 28%). Even though there is no marker of immediateness, a number of respondents preferred *be about to* (UE: 8.9%; UFA: 14%) and *be on the point of* (UE: 7.6%; UFA: 7%).

1/ This feature is not substantial when demand is low (i.e., in the baseload) but _____ price considerably in the peak.

A is going to affect	B is to affect	C will affect
D is about to affect	E is on the point of affecting	

The use of *will/shall* in (defining) intratextual reference and an author's effort and intention to deal with theoretical phenomena somewhere and in some way were tested in items 2 and 3. Only a few respondents chose *will* in both the items (item 2 – UE: 15.2%, UFA: 17.5%; item 3 – UE: 13.9%, UFA: 29.8%). The aspect of formality in written professional discourse was surpassed by the intentional interpretation. Thus, respondents selected the *be going to* form in item 2 (UE: 43%; UFA: 45.6%) as well as in item 3 (UE: 45.6%; UFA: 36.8%).

2/ Therefore, we _____ the exponential model (14) for the recidivism of the control group.

A are going to adopt B will adopt C are about to adopt
D are due to adopt E are on the point of adopting

3/ In the next section, we _____ from the hedging characteristics to the implications for an ALM portfolio.

A will advance B are going to advance C are to advance
D are about to advance E are on the point of advancing

Respondents might also have interpreted both the items in terms of remoteness, i.e., as a near or immediate future. This interpretation would justify the use of the *be going to* and *be about to* forms (item 2 - UE: 13.9 %, UFA: 17.5 %; item 3 – UE: 15.2 %, UFA: 8.8 %).

The same tendency proves to be true even in item 4, especially with the UE group:

4/ It is motivated by the idea that a change in the health of a financial intermediary (which we _____ to simply as a "bank" when no ambiguity results) will affect its borrowing costs, lending rates, and lending standards.

A are going to refer B are to refer C are about to refer
D are on the point of referring E are destined to refer F will refer

Only a minority of respondents preferred *will* (UE: 22.8%; UFA: 36.8%). The most frequent choice was the *be going to* construction, inappropriate in a written professional discourse (UE: 26.6% ; UFA: 26.3%). Together with *be going to*, the forms conveying immediate future prevail as *be about to* is also frequent (UE: 7.6 %; UFA: 5.3 %). Some respondents preferred *be destined to* (UE: 12.7 %; UFA: 5.3 %), which does not make sense in terms of intratextual reference.

The use of *shall* in intratextual reference was tested in items 6 and 7 (item 6 – UE: 8.9 %, UFA: 14 %; item 7 – UE: 21.5 %, UFA: 14 %). *Will* was excluded from the possible options.

6/ We _____ to this non-negative profit constraint hereafter as the NNP constraint.
A are to refer B are going to refer C are referring
D shall refer E are about to refer

7/ As we _____ below the employment dynamics prior to retirement introduces significant complexities.
A are going to see B are to see C are about to see
D shall see E are seeing

Respondents preferred *be going to* in item 6 (UE: 22.8%, UFA: 22.8 %) as well as in item 7 (UE: 11.4 %; UFA: 24.6%). In addition, respondents prioritised the present progressive form in item 6 (UE: 40.5 %; UFA: 42.1 %) as well as in item 7 (UE: 26.7 %; UFA: 26.3 %). Obviously, the present progressive form and the *be going to* constructions are the most preferred forms to be used as means of textual reference by economic undergraduates. The reference is probably perceived as something intentional and even arranged by an author.

The use of *shall* to express a performative prefix of presumptions was tested in item 5. Purposely, *will* was excluded from the offered options. The UFA group avoided *shall* more than the UE group (UE: 34.2 %; UFA: 19.3 %). The most preferred option was the *be going to* structure again (UE: 32.9 %; UFA: 38.6 %). Instances of *be about to* were also frequent (UE: 12.7 %; UFA: 12.3 %). Thus, respondents inadequately used expressions of immediate futurality.

5/ We _____ that the market shock follows a normal mixture (NM) distribution and call the model as the NM-GARCH process.
A are going to assume B are about to assume C are to assume
D shall assume

The use of *shall* within a probability cluster was assessed in item 8. *Will* and *be going to* were excluded from the offered options.

8/ Orphanides and Williams (2002) highlight that another source of the uncertainty _____ neutral rate to change unpredictably over time.
A is about to allow B is allowing C is to allow
D shall allow

Still, only a minority of respondents preferred *shall* as the most appropriate form (UE: 22.8 %; UFA: 19.3 %). The most frequent answer comprises the present progressive form (UE: 44.3 %; UFA: 52.6 %). This form appears to be illogical in this context as an expression of a planned arrangement. Many respondents also used the totally inappropriate *be about to* construction conveying immediate futurality in the almost axiomatic statement (UE: 12.7%; UFA: 14%).

The preference of *will* versus *shall* and other futural constructions was assessed in item 12. It represents a hypothetical statement of a probability cluster. *Will* is definitely the most appropriate and frequent form to be used. Still, there were only few instances (UE: 21.5 %; UFA: 28.1 %). *Shall* was not so frequent in comparison with *will* (UE: 15.2 %; UFA: 14%), which corresponds to the frequency rate of the two futural constructions in the corpus. Another highly prioritised form was *be going to* (UE: 26.6%; UFA: 15.7%), which together with some instances of *be about to* (UE: 6.3%; UFA: 10.5%) suggests that many respondents perceive the situation as immediate or consider the *growth in capital services* as a present evidence for making more probable predictions.

12/ It should be noted that the growth in capital services from computers _____ both the increased quality of computer power, as well as changes in the level of investment

A will be B is going to be C shall be
D will have been E are about to be

Item 11 assesses respondents' ability to use the future perfect form in a situation suggesting post-indication given by the end of the *crisis*. Only a minimum of respondents interpreted the context correctly (UE: 10.1% ; UFA: 5.3%). The simple future *will* was a frequent option (UE: 34.2% ; UFA: 36.8%) together with *be going to* (UE: 25.3%; UFA: 33.3%).

11/ It will not be sufficient to restore them to pre-crisis levels unless permanent cuts in expenditure are planned, because there _____ an increase in government debt – arising from the reduced taxes and increased social benefits during the crisis.

A will be B is going to be C shall be
D will have been E are about to be

Item 13 tests respondents' ability to choose an appropriate means of intratextual reference if the most appropriate *will* and *shall* are not offered as options:

13/ Considering the impact of Research Article 4: The Empirical Estimations based on the model provided in (1) and (2) above, the following three reduced-form equations _____ in this study: ...

A	are going to be estimated	B	are to be estimated	C	are about to be estimated
D	are destined to be estimated	E	are being estimated		

In the item, the reference is emphasised by the impact of the source (Research Article 4) and the most appropriate option appears to be the *be to* form (B). Only a minority of respondents selected the correct option (UE: 13.9 %; UFA: 19.3 %). The most frequent options were the *to be going to* (A) structure (UE: 24.1 %; UFA: 24.1 %) and the present progressive (E) form (UE: 25.3 %; 25.9 %). It is apparent that most ESP learners consider the intratextual reference as a means of expressing the author's intention or even an arrangement (even though there is no agentive subject in the sentence) or as an expression of immediate future (*in this study*). The *be about to* structure was selected rarely (UE: 7.6 %; UFA: 6.9 %), still there are ESP learners who use the expression of immediate future in the formal context. The totally inappropriate determination conveyed by *to be destined to* structure was also rare (UE: 5.1 %; UFA 5.2 %). It appears that the omission of the most frequent and appropriate forms resulted in respondents' confusion as many of them (almost a fifth) omitted the item unanswered (UE: 22.8 %; UFA: 17.2 %).

9.5.2.4 Economic context-bound section

In the economic context-bound section (e-cb), both respondents from the University of Economics and from the University of Finance and Administration achieved significantly higher scores than in the context-unbound sections (UE: 46.5% ; UFA: 54.6%). As a matter of fact, no items in the section can be considered as difficult with respect to the degree of difficulty defined above. Thus, we will first consider items with low scores.

Respondents scored least in item 9 (UE: 32.9 %; UFA: 49.1%). They tended to express:

- Certainty on the basis of present evidence (7 occurrences of *be going to*)
- Immediate futurality (2 occurrences of *be about to*, 1 occurrence of *be on the point of*)
- Plan (5 occurrences of the present progressive form)

This misuse is probably caused by explicitly expressed evidence, which might trigger the concepts of certainty, immediacy and arrangement.

> In this respect, recent empirical evidence on the impact of electoral systems on corruption is illustrative, demonstrating that electoral systems **[9]** _____ (enhance) competition among candidates,...

Therefore, respondents who are able to notice such markers might prefer futural constructions conveying such functions.

In the UFA group, respondents achieved the lowest score in item 6 (UE: 48.1%; UFA: 38.6%). The most frequent deviation consists in inappropriate expression of certainty.

> Honest politicians have fewer such resources at their disposal and **[6]** _____ (perish) as a result of competition for political positions (Buchanan 1993: 69).

Some respondents preferred the present simple form, probably due to the present simple *have* in the preceding main clause. Respondents were assigned explicitly to express futurality. The present simple form is therefore incorrect as, in the given context, it cannot express any scheduled reality. It seems that the undergraduates used the present simple form to convey certainty. The present simple form is more factual and does not convey the futural hypothetical meaning such as *will*, *may* or *might*. The tendency to express factuality rather than hypotheticality can be observed from the number of respondents who used rather inappropriate *must* at least once in the hypothetical cluster (UE: 17.7%; UFA: 24.6%).

The significantly better result in the e-cb section can result from the lack of grammatical markers rather than from respondents' knowledge of appropriate futural constructions used in hypothetical clusters. It can thus be more contributing to observe the number of students who used an inappropriate form (*present simple, present progressive, be going to, be about to, be on the point of*) at least once, excluding respondents who gave no answers. In the UE group, it was 62.5 % of all respondents that use the inappropriate form at least once, in the UFA group, the number amounted to 68.8 %.

It may become apparent that when respondents have only few clues and have to deduce appropriate responses from the context, they use more frequent and neutral expressions such as *will*. Still, most respondents use inappropriate expressions in the hypothetical clusters in a number of instances if they can find some marker more relevant

for the general context. Economic undergraduates thus seem to lack in pragmatic and functional competence regarding the use of the constructions of futurality.

In addition, a large number of respondents used only one expression within the whole hypothetical cluster (*will* in most instances). It has been shown in the theoretical part that authors of economic texts usually combine various grammatical means (e.g., *will, might, may, should*) with lexical means (e.g., *be likely to, be destined to*). Obviously, respondents use one preferred form (*will*) where they cannot apply the general-context rules. As *will* is one of the possible expressions to be used in the hypothetical cluster, a number of students scored better in the e-cb than in the e-cu section. The results thus prove pragmatic inflexibility of economic undergraduates as they are not able to use a wider range of hypothetical (and hedging) expressions.

9.5.3 Noticing of futural constructions

A particular part of the test was devoted to noticing. The purposes of the investigation is to assess to what extent ESP learners are able to perceive futurality in the context of a professional text. Perception and noticing are (according to the noticing hypothesis) a necessary (but not sufficient) condition of a successful acquisitional process as it enables input to convert into intake. Noticing according to explicit instructional approaches is triggered by the instructor. But implicit instructions rely on the learner's ability to notice the particular phenomenon to a greater extent.

Respondents in both the pre-testing and testing were assigned to excerpt expressions that refer to the future in each sentence of a coherent text:

> **[1]** The second element is a range of populist organisations attempting to mobilise car drivers to oppose policies which might threaten their interests. **[2]** In the United States, the principal one has been the Coalition for Vehicle Choice (CVC, now no longer operating), which was the main means by which oppositions – in particular, to enhanced fuel economy or enhanced safety standards and to US participation in the Kyoto Protocol – were articulated as a question of consumer's rights. **[3]** In the Washington Times, Mike Anson wrote in an article reproduced on the CVC's website, that **[4]** "If the fuel economy standards are raised, cars and trucks will have to get smaller and less powerful. **[5]** Based on the cars and trucks people are buying most, that is not what they want… **[6]** I'm letting my representatives know that I oppose the Global Warming Treaty [Kyoto] and that I support the CAFÉ fuel economy freeze… **[7]** I really want to be able to buy the pickup truck I want with the engine I want."
>
> (from Paterson M: *Automobile Politics - Ecology and Cultural Political Economy*)

The text comprised seven sentences. There were seven constructions that were identified as references to the future: *to mobilise, to oppose, might threaten, are raised, will have to, to be able to* and *to buy*.

In the pre-test, there were three major expressions identified as expressions of futurality: *will*, *might* and *to be able to*.

Expression	Percentage of correct answers
to mobilise	10.71 %
to oppose	3.57 %
might threaten	71.43 %
are raised	21.43 %
will have to	78.57 %
to be able to	78.57 %
to buy	42.86 %

Table 27: Noticed expressions of futurality in pre-test

Respondents at the University of Economics were also able to identify only the three of the eight expressions of futurality as can be seen in the following table:

Expression	Percentage of correct answers
to mobilise	7.59 %
to oppose	0 %
might threaten	58.23 %
are raised	20.25 %
will have to	68.35 %
to be able to	56.96 %
to buy	21.52 %

Table 28: Noticed expressions of futurality by UE respondents

Obviously, respondents identified structures that are presented as expressions of futurality by most teachers and textbooks: *might* and *will*. Only minority of ESP learners also

identified non-finite forms (infinitive) as futural constructions. It appears that futurality is identified only on the basis of matrix time but not complement time (Huddleston et al., 2002). The only exception is the *be able to* phrase after *want*. It seems that ESP learners associate complement future with some verbs (*to want*) but not others (*to attempt*). But it proves to be true only to a limited extent as *to buy* is not considered as an expression of futurality either even though it is embedded in the act of wanting. Analogously, noticing fails in case of subordinate future (*are raised*). The interference with Czech makes it difficult for Czech learners of English to notice subordinate futurality.

The data collected at the University of Finance and Administration confirm the results presented above so the conclusions are similar.

Expression	Percentage of correct answers
to mobilise	10.53 %
to oppose	1.75 %
might threaten	54.39 %
are raised	14.04 %
will have to	64.91 %
to be able to	70.18 %
to buy	36.84 %

Table 29: Noticed expressions of futurality by UFA respondents

Regarding the complement futurality, the noticing potential is probably given by the remoteness of the complement from the matrix and by the level of embedding. If we consider the pairs *to mobilise – to oppose* and *to be able to – to buy* where the former verb is a complement future and the matrix future for the latter verb at the same time, respondents identified *to mobilise* and *to be able to* as expressions of futurality more frequently. Thus, the noticing potential appears to be delimited by the complexity of the cotext.

Some common errors occurred in the responses which can be summarised as follows:

- ESP learners often identify matrix time as future instead of the complement time, for instance *attempting* instead of *to mobilise or I really want* instead of *to be able to*. Hence, the structural framework of futurality is difficult for ESP learners to notice, perceive and analyse.

- Present progressive forms are often identified as expressions of futurality even though they refer to the present (*am letting, are buying*).
- Present simple form (*I oppose*) is also thought to refer to the future even though it does not convey any immutable reality.
- A number of past participles were declared to refer to the future even though they either had no temporal meaning (*based on*) or referred to the past rather than to the future (*reproduced*).
- Illogically, a number of students selected the present perfect form (*has been*) as an expression of future even though the future and present meanings of the action were inhibited by the phrase *now no longer operating*.

The results prove that ESP learners are not able to perceive futurality in its broader interpretation. They are more likely to notice such expressions that are declared as futural in their previous English studies.

10 EFFECTIVENESS OF IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION

The investigation that is to be presented in this chapter explores to what extent implicit and explicit instruction can be effective in the acquisitional process of futural expressions. Throughout the research, we will make reference to Ellis's terminology (2012) (see Chapter 2).

10.1 THE MEASURE OF EFFECTIVENESS

Effectiveness of education is defined as "a complex phenomenon expressing under what conditions certain inputs result in certain outputs. Inputs represent factors given by the characteristics of educational subjects and content. Conditions represent characteristics of the educational process. Outputs are effects and results of education." (Průcha et al., 2003, p. 55) According to Pařízek (1996, p. 27), the term effectiveness was derived from economy and economics. Considering the economic origin of the term, effectiveness can be interpreted with respect to (financial) costs invested in the educational process and its results. It is more effective if the same costs bring about better results. The higher effectiveness, the more economical and efficient the educational process is.

Thus, effectiveness is an important quantity in education. It can also be delimited by the following two criteria:

- external effect as a result of the educational process that increases economic growth, and
- minimum costs of education[241] that result in satisfactory and required goals.

The definition of effectiveness also suggests that there is a mutual relation of educational goals, means and results. Pařízek (2003, p. 27) asserts that the relation can be formulated as follows:

- The process of education is more effective if better results are achieved by the same means.
- The process of education is more effective if the same results are achieved by less demanding means.

Janík et al. (2013, p. 158) define the term quality of education assessment. They declare that the quality also embraces effectiveness. One way of improving the quality of education is a qualified choice of a relatively best quality alternative (alteration) with

241 The minimum costs are defined as the lowest mental and physical power necessary to achieve educational aims, goals and targets.

respect to the real situation of learning and teaching. The definition of quality inherently presupposes that there can be higher and lower quality. It can therefore be measured to some extent. Janík et al. (ibid) claim that an objective measuring must take targets, outputs and consequences of the educational process into consideration. As a result of an effective and quality process, the learner should master the target better than before the process. Quality assessment must only account facts that prove positive changes of the command of a particular content.

One method of measuring effectiveness of education is assessing the added value of the education process. Průcha et al. (2003, p. 187) defines added value as "a difference between certain parameters of the input and certain parameters of the output."

The effectiveness of instruction in our research will therefore be measured by the added value. The input and output are measured by two progress tests. Conditions are modified by different instructional methods as well as materials used in order to increase the added value in the acquisition of futural constructions.

10.2 TARGET GROUPS

Two higher-education institutions were selected for the research: The Faculty of Social Sciences, Charles University Prague (hereinafter referred to as FSV UK) and The Faculty of Social Studies, University of Finance and Administration Prague (hereinafter referred to as FSS VSFS).

Second-grade bachelor undergraduates of the study program Economics and Management (B6208) were involved in the research. Second graders were selected as they are supposed to be motivated by their subject of study[242]. In addition, the same grade ensures that the measurement is not affected by the age, different L2 level/command and previous L2 instruction in a negative way. Altogether, there were seven seminar groups that participated actively. Three groups at FSV UK and four groups at FSS VSFS underwent experimental testing and instruction described below.

242 First-grade undergraduates who are not motivated and satisfied with the study program are likely to leave the institution after the first grade.

The groups were divided according to what instruction of futural constructions was provided: implicit (I) or explicit (E). Altogether, there were 70 participants in the experimental groups and 23 participants in the control group.[243]

Institution	FSV UK	FSS VSFS
Seminar groups – I	15 students	18 students
Seminar groups – E	21 students	16 students
Control group	0	23

Table 30: Number of students involved in effectiveness research

The participants' command of futural constructions in the economic context was first pre-tested. Then, they were exposed to an implicit or explicit instruction which took 90 minutes in each seminar group. One week[244] after the instruction, the participants were post-tested with an equivalent test. The tests (post-test and pre-test) were not anonymous and were assigned in class as the pre-test and the post-test of each participant had to be paired together. The results of pre-testing and post-testing were compared to calculate the added value of the instruction as the difference of the scores.

10.3 STRUCTURE OF INSTRUCTION

Learners in each seminar group were provided with teaching materials. The teaching materials were different for implicit and explicit instructions. Still, the language and content of the materials were the same in both the groups. It was necessary to ensure that the input which the learners were exposed to was identical. The instructor in all the seminar groups was the author of the dissertation. Thus, the distorting effect of different approaches towards teaching was restricted.

243 The control group was established to measure the reliability (equivalence) of the pre-test and post-test. The reliability measured by the correlation coefficient accounts for 0.786, which proves that the equivalence of the pre- and post-test is fairly high. (Gavora, 2010, p. 90).

244 The period of one week was chosen due to a number of reasons. First, the effect of instruction was measured, so we had to avoid any interference with instruction provided for respondents after the experimental instruction. Second, it was for practical purposes as one week is the period between lessons at Czech universities. Thus, the research results might prove to what extent instruction affects learners' command between two units (seminars or lectures). Finally, immediate post-test was not assigned as Ellis (2012) proves that there can be significant differences between immediate and delayed post-test scores (see Chapter 2).

The structure and the content of the implicit and explicit teaching material were also identical. Each lesson dealt with the fundamental economic problem and the production possibility frontier, which is an economic topic introduced at both the institutions in economic subjects during the first semester. All the participants (100 %) declared that they had a good knowledge of the topic. Both the implicit (I) and explicit (E) worksheets had the following structure (see Appendix 7 and Appendix 8):

- Lead-in (E, I)
- Reading comprehension (E, I)
- Post-reading (E, I)
- Presentation (E)
- Practice (E, I)
- Follow-up activities (E, I)

The Lead-in part included two texts that the participants read in pairs, each student was assigned either text A or text B. Each learner read a different text so that they could share information with their partner (information gap). To make learners process the text thoroughly, they also had to find words according to definitions and answer open questions. The tasks were also included to make learners meet expressions of futurality when reading the text. At the same time, learners practised essential economic terms and the instructor checked their comprehension.

The Reading comprehension part contained a text with a detailed explanation of the concept of production possibility and its frontier. The theory was demonstrated on a case study so that the learners could elaborate a real task. The first two paragraphs of the text were read out in the class. Subsequently, each student read the rest of the text for themselves. Once learners have finished reading, they cooperated in pairs to solve a number of language and subject assignments. The source text contained a large number of futural constructions. Thus, the text saturated the input with futurality in terms of frequency, which Ellis (2012) calls enriched input.

In the post-reading part, pairs of learners had to find out truth values of a number of statements, answer comprehension and concept-checking questions and find lexical units in the source text to match definitions. In addition, learners were assigned two case studies to solve on the basis of what they had learnt from the text. The tasks were assigned either as pair work or individual work to vary the interaction pattern. The instruction provided all learners with correct answers in the end.

Explicit presentation of the use of futural expressions in economic texts was provided for learners only in explicit groups (see Appendix 9). This stage was omitted in implicit groups.

In the Practice part, learners had to cope with a number of language assignments which were rich in futural constructions. Both the implicit and explicit practice parts contained a variety of futural structures in the same sentences. Learners did the tasks individually. Finally, correct answers were provided for learners.

The follow-up activities developed learners' productive skills. Learners were to consider four different situations according to the position of the production possibility frontier. The four situations required the use of hypothetical expressions and simulated a real economic activity.

10.3.1 Explicit and implicit input

While the structure and content of the instructional material were identical, the task types differed significantly. Both the implicit and explicit inputs were enriched. But only the implicit input was enhanced (Ellis, 2012). Enhancement was realised by highlighting and underlining all expressions of futurality throughout the material.

In addition, futural expressions were not practised explicitly during the implicit instruction. While explicit groups were assigned a gap-fill exercise to use appropriate futural constructions, implicit groups inserted words from a list of lexical units in the same sentences. The expressions of futurality had not been omitted, but enhanced in implicit groups. Thus, both implicit and explicit learners were exposed to the same input even in the practice part.

10.3.2 Explicit and implicit explanation

No explicit explanation of the use of futural constructions was provided for implicit students. The only explicitness was conveyed by enhancement of the structures. An explicit overview of the use of futural structures (see Appendix 9) was distributed in

explicit groups.[245] The teacher then explained the use in his own words and answered learners' questions.

The outline comprised exemplars excerpted from the corpus-based study presented above. The explanation and exemplification were divided in accordance with the textual functions. Appropriacy was defined as an intersection of the categories of

- frequency,
- medium and
- level of formality.

Thus, ESP learners were introduced to a more complex set of criteria that affect the use of the expressions of futurality. It was also emphasised that grammaticality is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for choosing appropriate grammatical forms.

10.3.3 Explicit and implicit feedback

Explicitness and implicitness were also differentiated on the level of feedback provided by the teacher (Ellis, 2012). In implicit groups, explicit feedback, correction or explanation of learners' mistakes were eliminated. The instructor only paraphrased their production of futural expressions correctly where necessary, but no explicit repetition was required. Conversely, in explicit groups learners' mistakes were corrected explicitly and relevant rules of use were repeated by the teacher to explain the discrepancies.

In accordance with Ellis's terminology (2012, pp. 271 - 307), the two instructional types applied in our research can be described by the following parameters:

EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION

- performance options as in proactive form-focused instruction
  - direct consciousness-raising options (deductive)
  - indirect consciousness-raising options (inductive)
- language performance options
  - input-based instruction
    - response-based instruction
      - structured-input activities
    - exposure-based instruction
      - enriched input
      - no enhanced input
  - production-based instruction
    - text-manipulation practice

245 Exemplars from the outline were included in practice exercises in implicit groups to balance the proportion of futural expressions and saturate identical input.

- no text-creation practice
- reactive options through direct (explicit) feedback

IMPLICIT INSTRUCTION

- performance options as in proactive form-focused instruction
  - no consciousness-raising options
- language performance options
  - input-based instruction
    - no response-based instruction
    - exposure-based instruction
      - enriched input
      - enhanced input (highlighting, underlining)
  - production-based instruction
    - text-manipulation practice
    - text-creation practice
- reactive options through indirect (implicit) feedback

10.3.4 Tests

The pre- and post- tests had the very same structure of a multiple-choice test. They both contained fifteen items for which respondents were offered five options to choose from (see Appendix 10).

The texts comprised the same number of items covering the categories of textual functions defined on the basis of the corpus-based study:

- probability clusters
- textual reference
- questions and assignments
- performative prefix

Some items tested the use of less frequent expressions of futurality within the imaginary framework of realisation (*be going to*, *be about to*). Similarly, learners' preference of *will* to *shall* was assessed by the test. The test lasted from fifteen to twenty minutes so that learners would have to react immediately and employ their implicit (procedural) knowledge primarily.

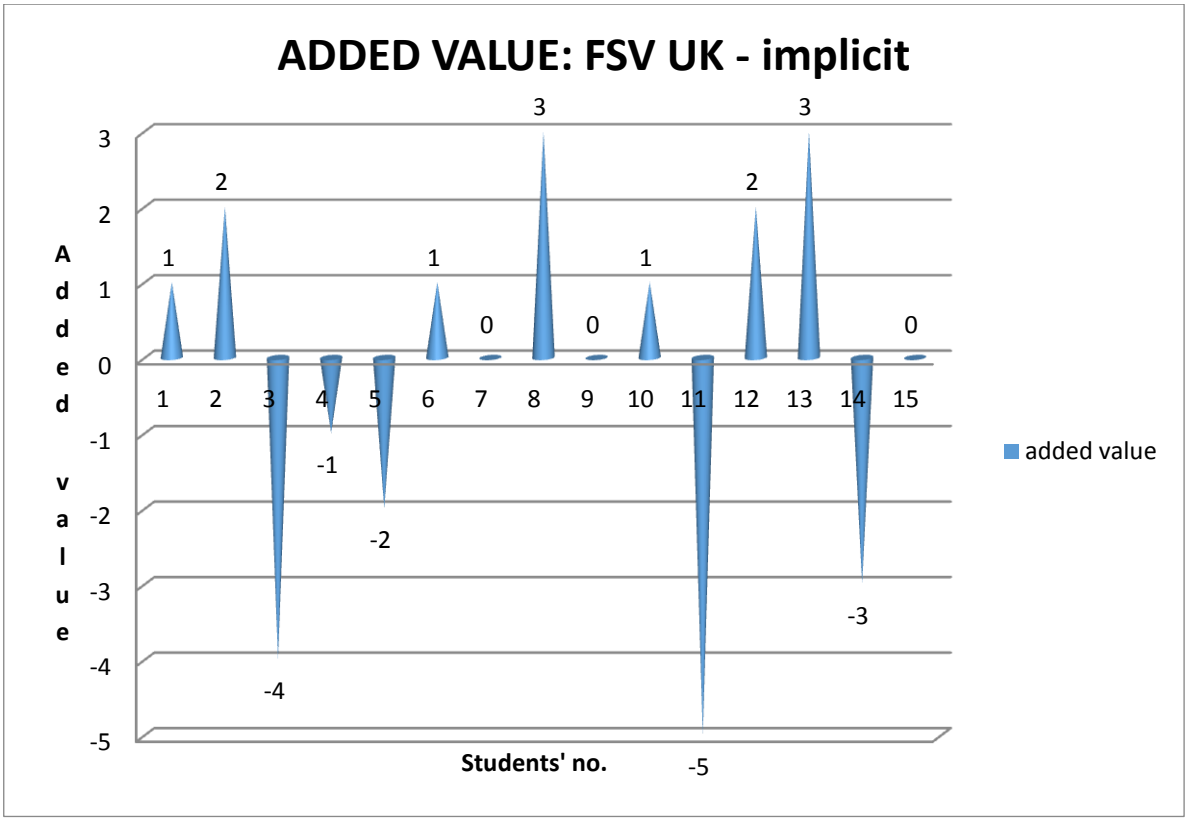
10.4 RESULTS

10.4.1 Statistical analysis

First, the data will be analysed for each institution separately. It will be possible to observe whether the public or the private institutions differ with respect to the two instruction types. Finally, only explicit and implicit instruction data will be analysed to prove or disprove the research hypotheses.

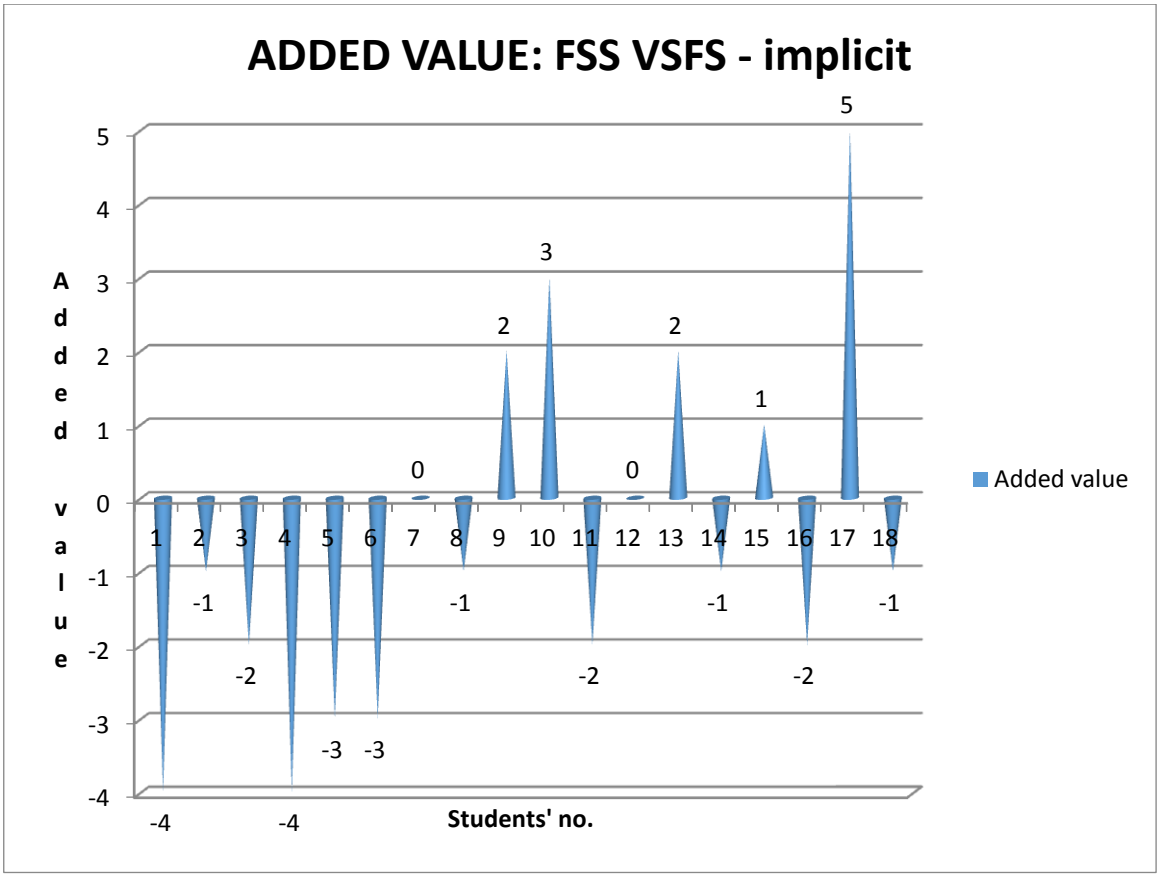
10.4.1.1 Implicit Instruction

At FSV UK, fifteen students obtained implicit instruction as described above. The mean score of the pre-test is equal to 6.53 (median: 6, standard deviation: 1.78). The mean post-test score is equal almost to the same value of 6.4 (median: 6, standard deviation: 2.73). Seven students obtained positive added values, five students received negative values, and another three values equal zero. Thus, the average added value is negative and equal to -0.13 (median: 0, standard deviation: 2.36). Obviously, there seems not to be any measurable difference between the results of the pre- and post-test after the implicit instruction at FSV UK.



Graph 5: Added values of FSV UK respondents exposed to implicit instruction

At FSS VSFS, eighteen students obtained implicit instruction. The mean score of the pre-test is equal to 5.78 (median: 6, standard deviation: 2.2). The mean post-test score is equal almost to the same value of 5.17 (median: 6, standard deviation: 1.57). Five students received positive added values, eleven students received negative scores, and two added values equal zero. The average added value is negative and equal to -0.61 (median: -1, standard deviation: 2.38). It appears that at FSS VSFS students scored even worse in the post-test than in the pre-test.

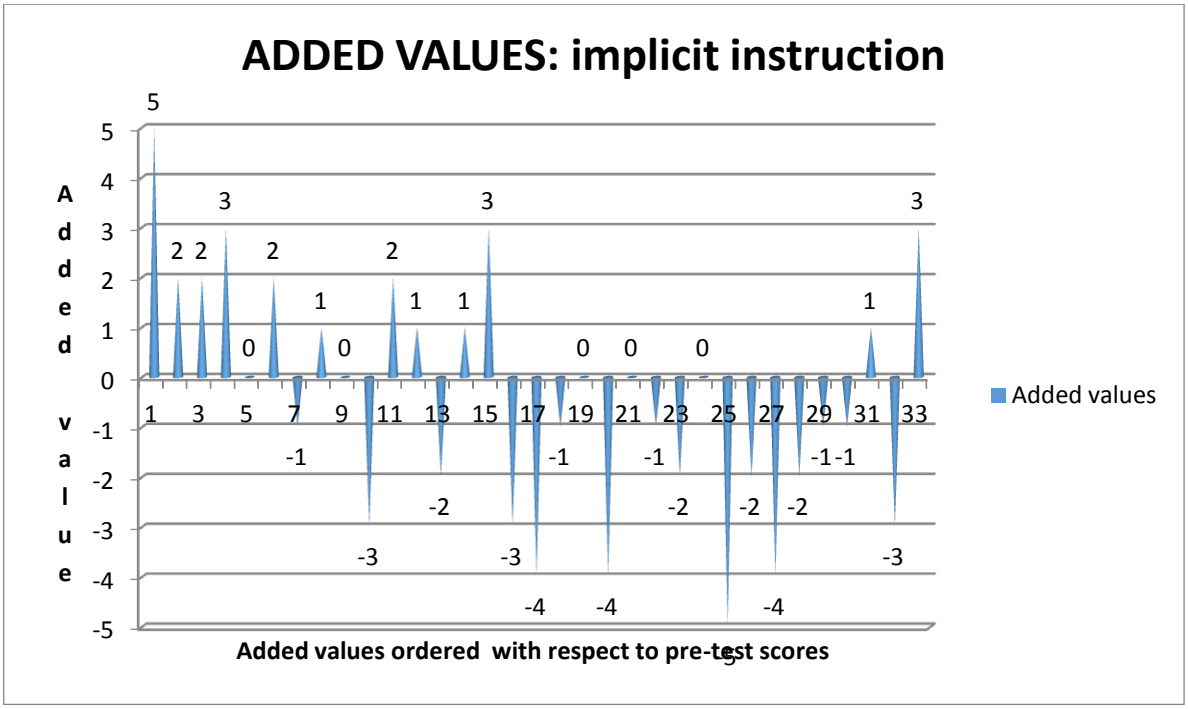


Graph 6: Added values of FSS VSFS respondents exposed to implicit instruction

It is therefore possible to hypothesise that the implicit instruction did not result in any significant added value in students' scores in either institution and thus seems to be ineffective.

If the results of all students are considered, it becomes apparent that the data show no significant positive impact of implicit instruction. Out of all 33 students, only twelve students gained positive scores and five scores were equal to zero. Sixteen students' scores were negative. The mean pre-test score (6.12, median: 6, standard deviation: 2.06) is therefore greater than the mean post-test score (5.72, median: 6, standard deviation: 2.56). The mean added value is equal to zero. The data thus prove that there is no progress in implicit respondents' performance (modus: 0).

In addition, the data in the graph below are ordered according to the increasing results in the pre-test. It is obvious that with the increasing score the occurrence of negative added values increases. It thus appears that students with better command of futurality expressions do not benefit from the implicit instruction as much as students with lower scores. This tendency is also proved by the weak correlation between the pre- and post-test scores (correlation coefficient: 0.39).



Graph 7: Added values ordered with respect to pre-test scores (implicit instruction)

We can therefore formulate the following hypothesis:

H_0: Implicit instruction does not impact the command of futurality expressions significantly.

Hence, the alternative hypothesis must be phrased as follows:

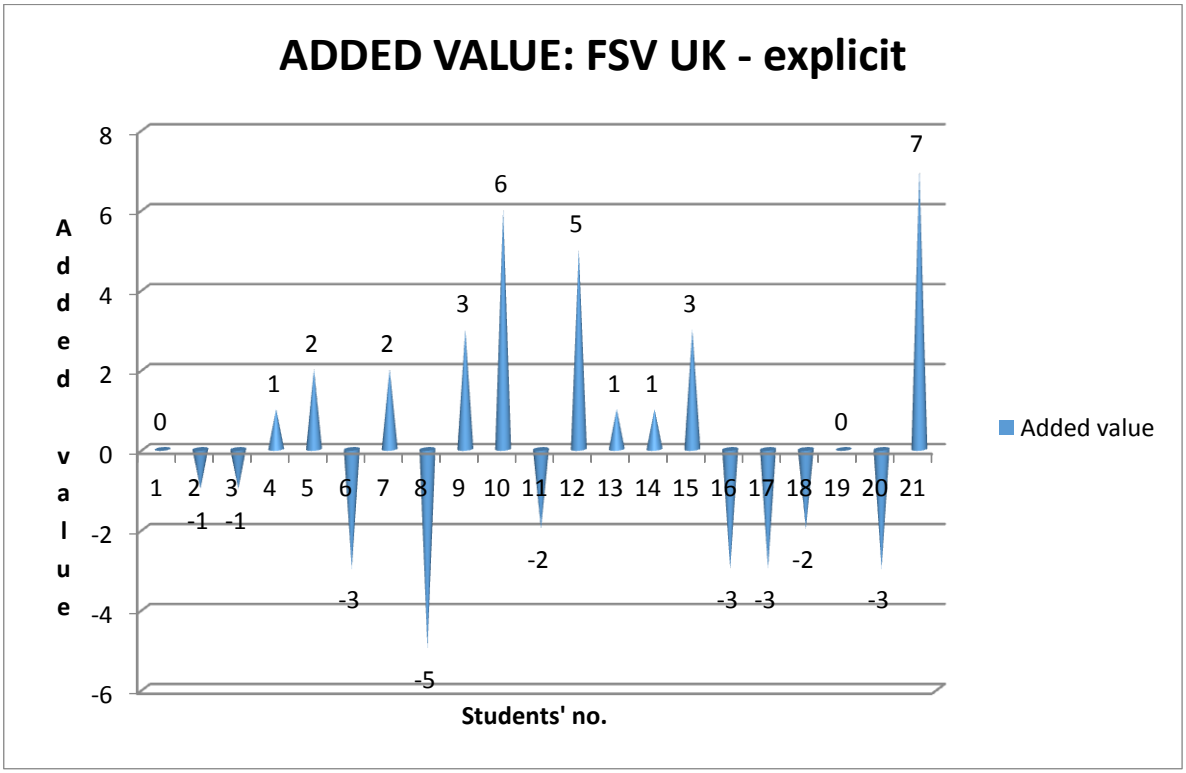
H_A: Implicit instruction impacts the command of futurality expressions significantly.

To confirm or refuse the hypotheses, the paired t-test is applied (Chráska, 2007, p. 130). The 0.05 level of significance is applied, so the critical value $t_{0.05}(32)$ is equal to 2.037. But the result of the paired t-test of the implicit instruction is equal to 0,933 (in the absolute value). As the result is less than the critical value, the hypothesis H_0 is confirmed. We can conclude that the impact of implicit instruction is insignificant with respect to the acquisition of futural expressions.

10.4.1.2 Explicit Instruction

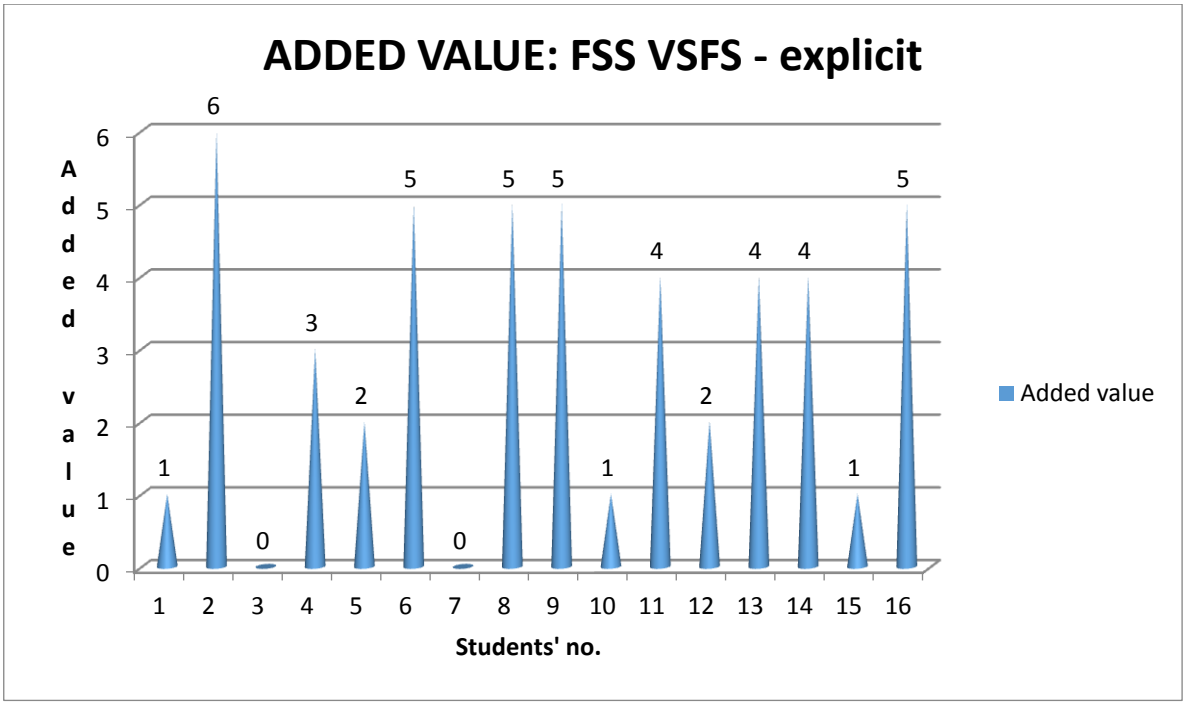
At FSV UK, twenty-one students obtained explicit instruction as defined above. The mean score of the pre-test is equal to 7.05 (median: 7, standard deviation: 1.33). The mean post-test score is equal to 7.43 (median: 7, standard deviation: 3.02). Ten students obtained positive added values, nine students received negative values, and two values

equal 0. Thus, the average added value is positive and equal to 0.38 (median: 0, standard deviation: 3. 14). There appears to be some measurable difference between the results of the pre- and post-test after the explicit instruction at FSV UK. It is slightly positive. The larger standard deviation of the post-test results shows that the scores are more varied. The effect of the explicit instruction thus seems to be rather diversified.



Graph 8: Added values of FSV UK respondents exposed to explicit instruction

At FSS VSFS, sixteen students were exposed to explicit instruction. The mean score of the pre-test is equal to 5.25 (median: 6, standard deviation: 1.39). The mean post-test score is equal to the value of 8.25 (median: 9, standard deviation: 3.03). All students received positive added values, no students received negative scores, and two added values equal zero. The average added value is positive and equal to 3 (median: 3.5, standard deviation: 1.94). At FSS VSFS, the effect of explicit instruction appears to be fairly positive.

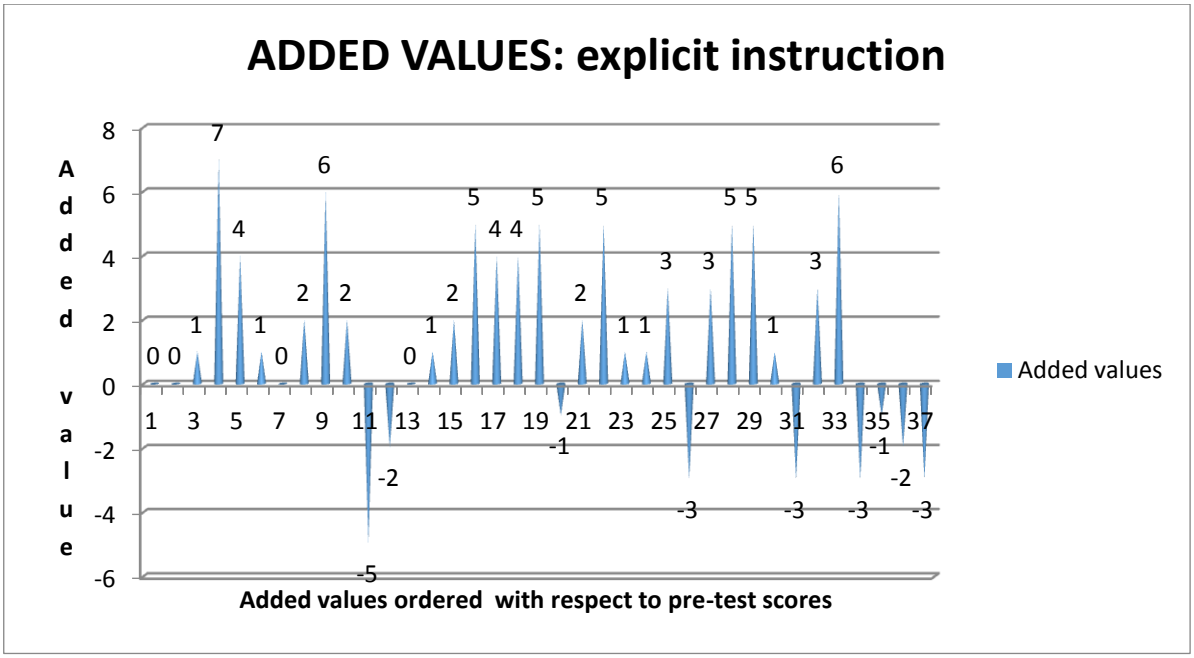


Graph 9: Added values of FSS VSFS respondents exposed to explicit instruction

It is therefore possible to hypothesise that the explicit instruction does result in a positive added value in students' scores in either institution and thus seems to be effective.

If the results of all students are considered, it becomes apparent that the data show significant positive impact of explicit instruction. Out of all 37 students, twenty-four students gained positive scores and only four scores were equal to zero. Nine scores were negative. The mean pre-test score (6.27, median: 6, standard deviation: 1.62) is therefore less than the mean post-test score (7.78, median: 8, standard deviation: 3.05). The mean added value is equal to one. The data thus prove that there is slight progress in explicit respondents' performance (modus: 1) accounting for an increase of one point on average.

The data in the graph below are ordered according to the increasing results in the pre-test. It is apparent that the occurrence of positive added values is fairly balanced. It thus appears that all students benefit from the explicit instruction. Thus, the correlation between the pre- and post-test scores is weak (correlation coefficient: 0.31).



Graph 10: Added values ordered with respect to pre-test scores (explicit instruction)

We can formulate the following hypothesis:

H_0: Explicit instruction does not impact the command of futurality expressions significantly.

The alternative hypothesis therefore is:

H_A: Explicit instruction impacts the command of futurality expressions significantly.

To confirm or refuse the hypotheses, the paired t-test is applied (Chráska, 2007, p. 130). The 0.05 level of significance is considered, so the critical value $t_{0.05}(36)$ is equal to 2.028. The result of the paired t-test of the implicit instruction is equal to 3.044 (in the absolute value). As the result is greater than the critical value, the hypothesis H_0 is refused and the alternative hypothesis is confirmed. We can therefore conclude that the positive impact of explicit instruction is significant with respect to the acquisition of futural expressions.

10.4.1.3 Error analysis

Qualitative aspects of the impact of instruction can be explored by analysing errors. Test items whose ratio of correct answers is less than 0.3 (Byčkovský et al., 2007, p.34) will be investigated. The following table summarises the number of items in both the pre- and post- tests that are suspicious with respect the above criterion (ratio of difficulty):

Institution:	FSV UK	FSS VSFS
Implicit instruction		
Pre-test	1, 3, 5, 11, 14, 15	1, 3, 5, 11, 12, 14
Post-test	2, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12	2, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10
Explicit instruction		
Pre-test	1, 3, 5, 11, 14	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 11, 12, 14, 15
Post-test	9, 11	5, 9, 10, 11, 12

Table 31: Suspicious items in pre- and post-tests with respect to instruction

Obviously, the number of suspicious items decreases more significantly as a result of explicit instruction. While the ratio of post-test versus pre-test suspicious items is equal to 7:6 (FSV UK) and 6:6 (FSS VSFS) after implicit instruction, the same ratio after explicit instruction is only 2:5 (FSV UK) and 5:9 (FSS VSFS)[246]. In other words, explicit instruction leads to reduction of test items that ESP learners find too difficult.

In the analysis of the pre-test and post-test items, we will consider items that were difficult for students of both institutions in the pre-test. In the analysis of post-test results, we will try to identify phenomena that explicit instruction helped to reduce.

Pre-test

Regarding the pre-test, there are five major matchings of suspicious items across the groups: 1, 3, 5, 11 and 14.

In the first item, ESP learners are expected to use *will* in an assignment (opening question) assigned by the author to readers.

> 1/ _____ a monopsony typically also _____ (be) a monopoly? Give examples of monopsonists that are not monopolists, and monopolists that are not monopsonists.
> a/ shall b/ will c/ is – going to d/ is - to
> e/ is – about to

The most frequent answer was option *c*. Twenty-seven students chose *be going to* even though the action does not refer to any imaginary action (no imaginary/non-factual future is likely to be expected). In addition, twenty-five out of seventy respondents preferred *shall*

246 The lower the ratio is, the more effective the instruction will be as the number of suspicious items decreases.

to *will*. But according to the corpus-based study, *shall* is not as frequent as *will* and occurs mostly as a means of conveying intratextual reference. Seven respondents prioritised option *d* even though no obligation or requirement can be found in the relation of a monopsony and monopoly. Another six respondents preferred option *e*, which also does not match the context as *be about to* occurs in an economic professional text in case studies and imaginary situations (non-factual/imaginary futurality). Imaginary situation might be taken into account if a particular case study was analysed, i.e., if a particular monopsony and a particular monopoly were considered.

In item three, futurality as a means of intratextual reference was assessed. *Will* as the most frequent means was not included. Thus, *shall* was the most appropriate answer.[247]

> 3/ In this section, we _____ briefly _____ (discuss) the target-setting policies pursued in four countries: the USA, Canada, the UK and Australia.
> a/ shall b/ are going to c/ are about to d/ are discussing e/ are on the point of discussing

But forty-one respondents chose option *b*, which is inappropriate. Similarly, eleven respondents prioritised option *d* and seven respondents preferred option *c*. According to the corpus-base study, *be going to* and *be about to* are extremely rare in this function and are likely to be an aspect of the author's characteristic idiolect. Only six respondents chose the correct answer *c*. It appears that ESP learners avoid using *shall*[248].

The same results can be observed in item eleven where the same options were offered to respondents to express more distant (not immediate) intratextual reference:

> 11/ We _____ (examine) this issue in more detail in later sections.
> a/ are going to b/ shall c/ are examining d/ are about to e/ ---

Fifty out of seventy respondents also prioritised option *a*. Another ten *c* options occurred. It appears that ESP learners prefer expressions typical of spoken rather than written discourse. The preferred forms can also suggest that the structure of a book can be perceived as organised, planned and therefore arranged. Only two respondents chose option *d*, and one option *e* occurred.

Item five tested ESP learners' ability to identify a requirement or rationality expressed by the *be to* structure in a dependent desirability conditional clause as a complementary expression of *should* in the main clause:

247 *Will* was omitted to find out whether ESP learners are able to choose other appropriate exponents of this function.
248 Some respondents declared they consider *shall* as an outdated expression.

5/ So how many packets should he consume if he _____ (act) rationally? To answer this we need to introduce the concept of consumer surplus.
a/ acts b/ will c/ shall act d/ is to e/ is on the point of acting

Only five respondents out of seventy preferred the most appropriate option *d*. Forty-three respondents chose option *a*. The present simple tense is not able to convey the meaning of requirement, which does not make much sense with respect to *should* in the main clause. But the present simple form is presented by ESP textbooks as almost the only form conveying subordinate futurality. The second most frequent answer is *b* (twenty respondents) which is not used in subordinate clauses in case of conjoint reference and realisation frameworks. In addition, two respondents chose option *c* which might convey the meaning of appropriateness but is inappropriate in a dependent clause (such instances were found neither in comprehensive grammar books nor in the corpus). We can thus conclude that a high proportion of ESP learners do not use an appropriate form in a dependent conditional clause as they are not able to identify subordinate future. Those who identify it prioritise the present simple form.

Unlike items three and eleven, item fourteen includes *will* as the most appropriate exponent of intratextual reference, which was preferred by only seven out of seventy respondents. Eight respondents preferred *shall* (option *c*) to *will*. It is acceptable but not the most appropriate futural expression in terms of statistical occurrence.

14/ To aid the exposition we _____ (refer) to Figure 3.1, which schematically indicates various kinds of individual work history information, as it might have been collected by a sample.
a/ will b/ are going to c/ shall d/ are referring e/ are about to refer

The most frequent option is *d* (thirty-three occurrences). Respondents might have interpreted the situation as present even though they were instructed explicitly to select an expression of futurality. But the second most frequent option is *b* that accounts for seventeen occurrences. Only two respondents chose option *e*, which is totally inappropriate. Thus, most respondents selected structures that refer to the future. It is therefore likely that the present progressive form was also used to refer to the future rather than the present. We can conclude that ESP learners' command to express intratextual reference in English is very low. Hence, findings of the pre-test correspond to the research of general and specific language proficiency.

Post-test

After the implicit instruction had been provided, five items appear to be suspicious: 2, 6, 7, 9, 10. ESP learners exposed to explicit instruction coped with the post-test better. At both the institutions, only two items can be declared as suspicious (9 and 11). Item 10 can also be marked as suspicious in three of the four categories of ESP learners. We can thus claim that explicit instruction helped learners succeed in items 2, 6 and 7.

In item two, the use of *shall* expressing intratextual reference was tested.

> 2/ We _____ (consider) these questions in the following chapters.
> a/ shall b/ are going to c/ are about to d/ are on the point of considering e/ are considering

While implicit instruction did not help ESP learners cope with the item, after they were exposed to explicit instruction the item was not so difficult for respondents.

	Implicit	Explicit
a	6 (18.2 %)	18 (48.7 %)
b	11 (33.3 %)	10 (27 %)
c	3 (9.1 %)	3 (8.1 %)
d	0 (0 %)	0 (0 %)
e	13 (39.4 %)	6 (16.2 %)
no	0 (0 %)	0 (0 %)

After explicit instruction, the total of correct answers was by 30.5 % greater than after implicit instruction. ESP learners refused mainly *be going to* (by 6.3% fewer respondents) and the present progressive form (by 23.2 % fewer respondents) as appropriate expressions conveying intertextual reference.

The use of *will* in assignments that do not represent any imaginary case study was another suspicious item in the pre-test.

> 6/ What determines the amount of profit that a firm _____ (make)? _____ profits _____ (be) large, or just enough for the firm to survive, or so low that it will be forced out of business?
> a/ will b/ shall c/ is/are going to d/ is/are to e/ is/are about to

	Implicit	Explicit
a	8 (24.2 %)	20 (54.1 %)
b	6 (18.2 %)	2 (5.4 %)
c	14 (42.4 %)	11 (29.7 %)
d	1 (3 %)	2 (5.4 %)
e	2 (6.1 %)	0 (0%)
no	2 (6.1 %)	2 (5.4 %)

Students (42.4 %) who received implicit instruction prioritised the *be going to* structure to express the assignment (asking for a hypothesis or axiom), which is inappropriate according to the corpus-based study. Explicit instruction helped respondents select the correct answer which is *will* (54.1 %) and reduced the selection of *be going to* (29.7 %). The use of *shall* which is also inappropriate to express this textual function is also lower after explicit (5.4 %) rather than implicit instruction (18.2 %).

Item seven tested ESP learners' ability to express requirements and desirability by means of *be to* in a dependent conditional clause. The appropriacy of the *be to* structure is supported by the use of *must* in the main clause. In addition, ESP learners have to avoid using *will* or *shall* in the dependent clause, which is a substantial source of interference between English and Czech.

> 7/ Unemployment thus rises back to the natural rate. If unemployment _____ (be) reduced in the long run, therefore, this vertical Phillips curve must be shifted to the left.
> a/ will b/ shall c/ is being d/ is to e/ is going to

	Implicit	Explicit
a	12 (36.4 %)	12 (32.4 %)
b	1 (3%)	1 (2.7 %)
c	12 (36.4 %)	1 (2.7 %)
d	5 (15.2 %)	22 (59.5 %)
e	2 (6 %)	1 (2.7 %)
no	1 (3 %)	0 (0 %)

Neither explicit nor implicit instruction helped ESP learners avoid using *will* in a subordinate conditional clause (implicit: 36.4 %, explicit: 32.4 %). But respondents

exposed to explicit instruction chose the correct *be to* structure more frequently (59.5 %) than those exposed to implicit instruction (15.2 %). Explicit instruction had a positive effect on the misuse of the present progressive tense (explicit: 2.7 %, implicit: 36.4 %), which was a frequent mistake in the pre-test as well.

In item nine, which remained suspicious after both implicit and explicit instructions, the use of *will* in intratextual reference was tested. Unlike item two, *will* was added to the choice of future expressions. Respondents who underwent explicit instruction scored better (21.7 %) than those exposed to implicit instruction (6.1%). Thus, some positive effect of explicit instruction is apparent. Still, the vast majority of respondents chose the *be going to* structure after both the types of instruction (implicit: 66.7 %, explicit: 56.7 %). Explicit instruction also helped ESP learners avoid using the *be on the point of* construction, which is extremely rare in the context according to the corpus-based study.

Unlike item two, the remoteness of the future in item nine appears to be closer to the present moment (*in the following chapter* versus *in this chapter*). ESP learners might thus be confused by the fact that the chapter has already been entered (*in this chapter*) and they therefore prioritised the *be going to* expression. The misuse of *be going to* might be caused by the aspect of remoteness, which is not applied in the professional economic context (see the corpus-based study presented in Chapter 7).

> 9/ What should the government do? These are questions we _____ (look) at in this chapter.
> a/ will b/ shall c/ are going to d/ are about to e/ are on the point of looking

	Implicit	Explicit
a	2 (6.1 %)	8 (21.7 %)
b	2 (6.1 %)	3 (8.1 %)
c	22 (66.7 %)	21 (56.7 %)
d	3 (9 %)	4 (10.8 %)
e	4 (12.1 %)	1 (2.7 %)
no	0 (0 %)	0 (0 %)

Analogously to item seven, the use of *be to* expressing a requirement to be fulfilled in the future is tested in item ten. In item seven, *be to* was the most frequent option after explicit instruction exposure, but the present simple form was not offered to respondents as

an option. In item ten, the present simple tense competed with *be to*, which enabled ESP learners to interpret the statement as a general conditional clause (omnitemporal interpretation).

> 10/ If road pricing _____ (be) effective, there must be attractive substitutes available. A comprehensive policy, therefore, should include subsidising efficient public transport.
> a/ will b/ shall c/ is d/ is to e/ is going to

	Implicit	Explicit
a	7 (21.2 %)	5 (13.5 %)
b	5 (15.2 %)	1 (2.7 %)
c	13 (39.4 %)	12 (32.5 %)
d	7 (21.2 %)	14 (37.8 %)
e	1 (3 %)	5 (13.5 %)
no	0 (0 %)	0 (0 %)

Respondents exposed to implicit instruction prioritised the omnitemporal interpretation (39.4 %) and only a minority respondents preferred *be to* (21.2 %). The general interpretation was also frequent with respondents exposed to explicit instruction (32.5 %) but was not the most frequent. Explicit instruction appears to help ESP learners identify the requirement and desirability in dependent conditional clauses expressed by *be to* structure. In addition, explicit instruction helps ESP learners avoid the use of *will* in the dependent clause (implicit: 21.2 %, explicit: 13.5 %).

Students who had been provided with explicit instruction used *be going to* in the if-clause more frequently (explicit: 13.5 %, implicit: 3 %). We admit that the statement might be interpreted as follows: *If there is any evidence that (the) road pricing will be effective, then... Must* in such an instance expresses epistemic modality (the author's belief there are substitutes available). This interpretation is less probable and appears to be constrained to a particular case. Thus, the phrase *road pricing* would probably be determined by the definite article. Still, we must admit that the vagueness might be confusing and option *e* might also be acceptable (which would increase the efficiency of explicit instruction either).

In item eleven, learners' command of subordinate future in a dependent time clause was tested. The item was marked as suspicious especially in the explicit group of respondents, where only a minority of students prioritised the correct option *e* (10.8 %).

ESP learners who were exposed to implicit instruction scored much better (39.4 %). Still, a relatively high proportion of respondents in both groups used *will* in the subordinate clause (implicit: 39.4 %, explicit: 56.8 %). In addition, students who underwent explicit instruction also preferred *shall* (implicit: 3%, explicit: 13.5 %) and *be to* (implicit: 0 %, explicit: 13.5 %) more often. This confirms the data presented above that respondents exposed to explicit instruction are more confident about using a wider range of futural expressions, namely *be to* and *shall*. But subordinate futurality appears to be a very complex and problematic phenomenon, resistant to both implicit and explicit instructions.

11/ Thus, for a short time, a rise in aggregate demand will raise output and employment above the natural level, while prices and wages _____ (be) still relatively low.
a/ will b/ shall c/ are to d/ are going to e/ are

	Implicit	Explicit
a	13 (39.4 %)	21 (56.8 %)
b	1 (3 %)	5 (13.5 %)
c	0 (0 %)	5 (13.5 %)
d	5 (15.2 %)	2 (5.4 %)
e	13 (39.4 %)	4 (10.8 %)
no	1 (3 %)	0 (0 %)

11 CONCLUSION

The dissertation summarises sixteen descriptors of futural constructions presented in relevant comprehensive grammar books and studies. Temporality and futurality are redefined and interpreted on the basis of temporal frameworks (reality, realisation and reference). The corpus-based study proves that futurality is a frequent grammatical feature in economic texts. All the core futural expressions occur in the corpus except for *be on the point/verge of*. The vast majority of instances are represented by *will*. Due to the high frequency of complex sentences (namely featuring conditional clauses), the present simple tense referring to the future (subordinate futurality) is the second most frequent expression of future in the corpus. The research shows that subordinate futurality poses a serious didactic problem for economic undergraduates fail to express it adequately in both the general and the economic contexts. Use of other core expressions is limited to very specific situations (such as case studies), which undergraduates do not appear to be able to identify and distinguish from other functions.

The corpus-based analysis proves that futurality occurs in a number of functions: textual, experiential and interpersonal in accordance with Halliday (1994, 2003). The variability of both grammatical and lexical expressions is typical of probability clusters. If ESP learners fail to use adequate futural structures in such clusters, their production becomes temporally inconsistent or temporally incoherent (Hoffmannová, 1983). On the other hand, the overuse of a single adequate expression results in pragmatic inflexibility. The defects of inconsistence, inflexibility as well as incoherence were identified in the didactic research of futurality (see Chapter 9).

It should be noted that only a few of the functions (intertextual reference and hypothesis) are explicated in grammar books of economic and business English. In addition, the textbooks present futural expressions using mostly neutral exemplars. They do not provide enough context to be able to identify the source medium (written or spoken), level of formality or the text type (monologue or dialogue). Authors also contradict one another namely with regard to the degree of probability which futural constructions convey. Furthermore, there exist discrepancies in the interpretation of remoteness of the particular expressions and in the use of *be going to* after probability prefixes.

The research also proves no significant correlation between general-language and specific-language proficiencies. ESP learners with a good command of futurality in a general context do not reach satisfactory scores in the specific (economic) context. The significantly lower scores achieved on average in the economic context confirm that the command of futurality represents a serious didactic problem in English for economic purposes. ESP learners tend to use a wide range of futural constructions that are inappropriate in the economic context. It is likely that economic undergraduates use their general-language knowledge when they deal with specific-language tasks disregarding the different discourse qualities. In this study, it is referred to as pragmatic overgeneralisation. Yet, more research needs to be done to explore ESP learners' explicit knowledge of futurality. Only an investigation into explicit knowledge (Ellis, 2009) can reveal students' motivation for the use of particular structures and their (mis)interpretation of the context.

The measurement of the ability of ESP learners to notice expressions of futurality shows that economic undergraduates are able to notice mainly expressions that are declared explicitly as futural by authors of textbooks (such as modal verbs). In addition, learners are able to notice complement future conveyed by the infinitive if it is located next to the matrix expression. Subordinate futurality remains unnoticed. This supports the hypothesis that the phenomenon is a complex didactic problem, as noticing is a precondition for intake. Not only do ESP learners overuse *will* in conditional clauses where it is inappropriate, but they also fail to use other expressions of subordinate futurality, namely *be to*.

The investigation into the efficiency measured as added value proves positive effects of explicit instruction in comparison with implicit instruction. Maximisation of explicitness helps learners deal with the pragmatic overgeneralisation better than maximisation of implicitness. ESP learners exposed to explicit instruction express textual reference as well as questions and assignments more appropriately (with respect to the results of the corpus-based analysis). They also use *be to* as an expression of subordinate futurality in if-clauses significantly better. Thus, explicit instruction appears to increase added value (learners' implicit knowledge) in the short-term perspective. Still, neither implicit nor explicit instruction help learners avoid overusing *will* in subordinate clauses where inappropriate. Implicit instruction supported by enhanced input is apparently ineffective, at least in short-term perspective.

More research is necessary to measure the long-term effects of both implicit and explicit instruction. Even though ESP learners' free production and open answers were also

collected, their analysis exceeds the scope of the dissertation and will be the subject of further research. Learners' increased awareness of appropriacy and better scores in didactic tests might not result in a higher quality of the written and spoken production.

RÉSUMÉ (SHRNUTÍ)

Disertační práce zkoumá povahu vyjádření budoucnosti v odborném ekonomickém textu, přesněji v odborných ekonomických knihách (viz lingvistická složka práce, kap. 7). Poznatky z lingvistického výzkumu jsou poté využity pro konstrukci testů, které ověřují úroveň osvojení futuritních konstrukcí u studentů bakalářského studia studijního oboru B 6208 (Ekonomika a management). Lingvodidaktická složka disertační práce zkoumá způsob prezentace futurity v učebnicích anglické gramatiky pro studenty ekonomických oborů a srovnává je s nálezy popsanými v lingvistické části. Dále zkoumá úroveň osvojení futura v obecně-jazykovém a specificky-jazykovém (ekonomickém) kontextu. Cílem práce je zjistit, do jaké míry tyto úrovně korelují a zda mohou studenti bezpečně využívat svých znalostí obecného jazyka v ekonomickém kontextu nebo zda převažuje vliv interference mezi oběma jazykovými kódy (negativní vnitrojazykový transfer). Poslední část lingvodidaktického výzkumu ověřuje efektivnost (přidanou hodnotu) implicitního a explicitního vyučování futuritních konstrukcí u studentů výše zmíněného studijního programu.

Lingvistická část je založena na korpusovém výzkumu vybraných prostředků futurity (tzv. core expressions: *will/shall* + infinitive, *be going to, be to, be about to, be on the point/verge of*, přítomný čas prostý a průběhový). Práce se hlásí k širšímu pojetí futurity, které zahrnuje vedle čistě gramatických prostředků (modální slovesa) i širší škálu lexikálních konstrukcí (lexikální futurita). Z praktických důvodů je však nutné zkoumanou množinu omezit na konkrétní prostředky. Výzkum se soustřeďuje na ty, které akademické mluvnice a učebnice odborného ekonomického jazyka zmiňují nejčastěji (core expressions).

Korpus je založen na excerpci sedmi odborných knih publikovaných ekonomickými experty na předních britských univerzitách. K excerpci dat byl použit softwarových produkt tlCorpus2013 (verze 8.1.0.1087). Knihy jsou určeny pro ekonomické profesionály, studenty ekonomických oborů i odborníky z praxe.

Z výzkumu vyplývá preference užití modálního *will* jakoto dominantního prostředku vyjádření futurity v odborném ekonomickém textu. Vzhledem k častému výskytu hypotaktických spojení v odborném textu se často vyskytuje i užití přítomného času pro vyjádření budoucnosti (subordinační futurita). Poměrně častým futuritním

prostředkem synonymním s *will* je *shall*. Ostatní prostředky se vyskytují ve velice specifických situacích (např. případové studie).

Futurita v odborném ekonomickém textu se sdružuje ve skupinách (clusterech) vyjadřujících hypotetické úsudky, které postupně směřují k axiomatickým tvrzením. V těchto skupinách se uplatňují gramatické (*will, may, might, can*) i lexikální prostředky futurity (*be likely to, be apparent*). Volba neadekvátních prostředků vytváří temporální disharmonii a nekonzistenci. Přílišné opakování jediného prostředku je pak projevem pragmatické neflexibility nerodilých mluvčích. Mezi další textové funkce (makrofunkce) se řadí textová reference, performativní prefix a otázky (zadání). Zvláštní pozornost je věnována častému jevu tzv. temporální subordinace. Autor ji vykládá na základě temporálních rámců (reality, realizace a reference) a ukazuje, že subordinace probíhá na více úrovních a nelze ji vykládat jednostranně (např. omezit ji jen na některé prostředky futurity). Komunikativní funkce (mikrofunkce) zahrnují především záměrnost (účel, cíl a plán), vůli (ochotu, snahu a přání), změnu a stabilitu, způsob (prostředek, metoda a výsledek), jistotu (zdání, předpověď a pravděpodobnost) a potenciál (dispozice a schopnost). I v těchto funkcích se uplatňují všechny futuritní konstrukce (gramatické i lexikální). Lexikální prostředky autor uvádí pouze výčtově, aby dokreslil ostatní způsoby, se kterými se klíčové konstrukce (core expressions) vzájemně prolínají a sdružují.[249]

Učebnice gramatiky odborného ekonomického jazyka zmiňují obvykle pouze hypotetickou funkci futurity a méně často textovou referenci. Dílčí prostředky jsou vykládány na základě vzorů převzatých z neutrálních příkladů a kontextů. Není tedy zřejmé, zda jsou příklady převzaty z textu odborného nebo neodborného, psaného či mluveného, monologického nebo dialogického. Výklady a názorná vysvětlení učebnic gramatiky mají tedy jen omezenou platnost pro psaný odborný akademický diskurs.

Lingvodidaktický výzkum analyzuje vztah obecně-jazykových a specificky-jazykových implicitních znalostí futurity (jejích jádrových prostředků). Ukazuje se, že studenti ekonomických oborů výrazně lépe uspívají v testech ověřujících stupeň osvojení futuritních konstrukcí v obecném kontextu. Výsledky aplikace znalostí v ekonomickém kontextu jsou nižší u všech sledovaných skupin. Mezi oběma jazykovými složkami neexistuje přímá korelace. Naopak se objevuje dokonce korelace nepřímá. Platí tedy, že určitá kvalita zvládnutí futurity v obecném kontextu nezajišťuje stejnou kvalitu zvládnutí v ekonomickém textu. Analýza výsledků prokazuje, že studenti aplikují pravidla osvojená

249 Podrobnější popis (klasifikace a distribuce) periferních futuritních struktur zasluhuje podrobnější analýzu a výzkum.

v předchozím studiu (obecného jazyka) při řešení úloh omezených na ekonomický kontext. Zejména užívají prostředků, které neodpovídají kritériu stylistické vhodnosti (psanost a formálnost profesně-akademického textu) a statistického rozložení četností jednotlivých konstrukcí (frekvence užití). Užívají méně formálních prostředků (*be about to, be going to*) i v situacích, kdy se předpokládá užití formálnější konstrukce (*will* nebo *shall*). Studenti favorizují kritérium plánovanosti a záměrnosti před kritériem stylistické vhodnosti. Negativní mezijazykový transfer se projevuje zejména při vyjadřování futurity v rámci vedlejších vět. Interference je zřejmá již na úrovni percepce (noticing) futurity. Ukazuje se, že studenti v textu nevnímají odkaz na budoucnost vyjádřený prostřednictvím přítomného času. V didaktických testech poté užívají ve vedlejších větách nevhodné futuritní konstrukce. Nejsou dále v uspokojivé míře schopni využívat jiných typů subordinační futurity (například užít *be to* ve vedlejší podmínkové větě).

Druhá část lingvodidaktické složky analyzuje vliv (přesněji efektivnost jako přidanou hodnotu) explicitního a implicitního vyučování klíčových futuritních konstrukcí. Zatímco implicitní vyučování nepřináší v krátkodobém (týdenním) horizontu žádnou přidanou hodnotu, explicitní vyučování se projevuje zřetelným růstem přidané hodnoty měřené formou didaktických testů (párový t-test). Výrazné zlepšení se projevuje zejména ve vyjádření funkce textové reference a zadání úkolů (otázek). Explicitní vyučování rovněž přináší významné zlepšení ve využití vazby *be to* v podmínkových větách. Pozitivní přínos se rovněž projevuje v omezeném výskytu nevhodného *will* ve vedlejších podmínkových větách. Přesto výsledky didaktických testů nepřinášejí přesvědčivé důkazy o efektivnosti obou přístupů pro fenomén subordinační futurity. Studenti podrobení implicitnímu i explicitnímu vyučování u položek ověřujících zvládnutí subordinační futurity ve zvýšené míře chybují (preference *will*).

Předmětné doklady korpusové studie, výsledky a statistické zpracování lingvodidaktického výzkumu jsou připojeny na CD nosiči, který je součástí disertační práce.

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GLOSSARY

FUTURE

Future is used as a complementary term for the past and the present. It refers to an event, action or state oriented and located on the time axis from the present moment on. *Future* is thus considered as a point or an interval of time (time ⊃ future). Hence, it is used in collocations such as *future reference, future time, future tense* or *refer to the future*. The adjective *future* means *referring to the future* such as in *future form*.

FUTURALITY

The term *futurality* is used as the most abstract designation of linguistic means that refer to the future in any way. It embraces the potentiality of a form to comprise and convey reality which is neither past nor present exclusively. We refer to the general potentiality of a form to delimit time space as temporality (temporality ⊃ futurality). The term comprises a variety of forms: tensed predicates, non-finite verb forms, nouns, adjectives and various categories of verbs. In such a broad sense, it is possible to use the one term to cover future tense, future reference, modality and aspectuality all at once as well as to combine lexical and grammatical means. We use the adjective *futural* to refer to *futurality*.

FUTURATE

The term *futurate* is used in accordance with some Leech (2004) and Huddleston et al. (2002) to designate the future reference expressed by present tenses (the present simple tense and the present progressive tense). The term is used to suggest that futurality conveyed by the present tenses is immutable. Mutable futurality is then referred to as non-futurate.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BNC	British National Corpus
E	explicit
e	economic
e-cb	economic context-bound
e-cu	economic context-unbound
EAP	English for academic purposes
EGAP	English for general academic purposes
EOP	English for occupational purposes
ESAP	English for specific academic purposes
ESP	English for specific purposes
FFI	focus-on-form instruction
FFSI	focus-on-forms instruction
g	general
g-cb	general context-bound
g-su	general context-unbound
I	implicit
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
UE	University of Economics
UFA	University of Finance and Administration
V-ing	verb with the *ing* sufix (gerund or participle)